REPORT

ON

SMYRNA.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY GEORGE E. EYRE AND WILLIAM SPOTTISWOODE,
PRINTERS TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.
FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

1856.

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To the Right Hon. the Secretary of State for War.

My Lord,

I have the honour to submit herewith to your Lordship a Report on Smyrna, prepared by me in compliance with your Lordship's request, with the assistance of the Medical Officers composing the Civil Staff of the late Hospital at that Station.

I have the honour to be
Your Lordship's obedient Servant,
GEORGE ROLLESTON.

Nov. 1, 1856.

REPORT ON SMYRNA.

Geographical Description.

Unlike Constantinople, and unlike Sebastopol, Smyrna has no undulations in its surface which can cover a single house, either from the sea breeze or the guns of a vessel of war. Its houses are either ranged like the seats in an amphitheatre along the sides of a semicircular line of hills, or on the slopes and levels between those hills and the water edge. General view.

It has few open places or squares, and these are mostly planted with the sombre spike-like cypress, telling of graves beneath, but also obviating the glare and heat which would otherwise in this climate render an open space, surrounded by stone or brick buildings, quite insupportable in the summer heats. The narrowness of the streets, and the downward sloping and converging roofs, whatever disadvantages they may cause, and however they may impede traffic, have at least the merit of preventing the reflection of heat, and securing a constant undercurrent of cool air. The bazaars, which are simply narrow streets of shops, with an awning or tiling stretched from the roof of one side to that of the other, preserve an equable and agreeable temperature in the very hottest weather.

The town cannot in fairness be spoken of as dirty; it possesses numberless open as well as numberless covered gutters, but the draught of water through them is rapid, and it is rare for the senses to be offended by foul smells or by the sight of putrescent matters. The water is brought in covered aqueducts from springs at some distance from the town, and at a considerable elevation in the hills, and thus freedom from organic impurities and rapidity of flow is at once provided for.

Particular description.

The town of Smyrna, when seen at a distance from the deck of a vessel entering the bay, appears to be built partly upon a strip of level and partly upon sloping ground lying between the sea and a hilly background, partly to be creeping up and along the sides of these very hills.

On a nearer view it is seen that at the southern extremity of the town, a little to the right of a large red building, lately the British barracks, a bar of hills of moderate elevation abuts upon the water edge at a point easily distinguishable by the presence of a round tower. This point may be considered as the apex of a triangle, one side of which is formed by the seaboard and the other by the hill range, while the base may be well represented by the Meles which flows close under the abrupt termination of the line of hill. The hill side of this triangle, Mount Pagus, runs south-east; its length may be estimated at one mile and a half; its altitude increases gradually from the round tower immediately overhanging the water edge at the apex of the triangle, where it is about 223 feet, to its other extremity, where it reaches 608 feet in height. This last point is marked by the Castle, at present a ruin of considerable size, though from the comparatively recent epoch (A.D. 1225) of its construction, of no great antiquarian interest. The hill range here breaks off abruptly, presenting a precipitous face towards the Meles, which flows round its base and begins here to form the base of the triangle. The world-wide fame of the Meles is not due to its depth or commercial importance; in summer it forms but a series of pools connected by small ankle-deep sheets of running water, and it is due to the absence of the protecting hill barrier, not to any inconvenience occasioned by the presence of the stream, that the town does not extend across further northwards. It has been found that houses built so far out in the plain, which stretches for seven miles beyond the Meles, as to lie outside the shelter, or, as one might say, beyond the shadow of Mount Pagus, are all but uninhabitable from malaria. A house was lately built upon a knoll a little to the

Triangle formed by the town.

Malarious region.

right of the Meles, and about 100 feet above the level of the stream; the prospect was beautiful, the drainage easy, and in every other respect the site appeared advantageous. But it was exposed to the full draught of air which rushes down the narrow gorge beyond and beneath Mount Pagus, through which winds the Meles, and so unhealthy has it proved itself that in spite of the great expense he had incurred in building a large house there the owner has been obliged to leave it uninhabited. In their proper place the sanitary conditions of the several localities will be considered, they have been alluded to here because they have so powerfully influenced the geographical distribution of the town. It is sufficient here to say that the obstacle opposed to the further outgrowth of the town in this direction has been found as impassable though it be invisible as that created on the one side by the sea and on the other by the mountains. The Meles flows down to the sea through a succession of gardens and vineyards, enclosed, most of them, by high mud walls, and save when swollen in the rainy season, it percolates its way through the sand and gravel into the bay at a spot about equidistant from its most inland extremity on the right hand, and from a point called "the Point" on the left, where the seaward boundary of Smyrna commences. This side of the triangle is the longest of the three, being about two miles and a half in length; the excellent Admiralty maps, however, obviate the necessity of giving a detailed description of it; it possesses several excellent piers and quays, and ships of such draught as H.M.S. "Terrible" may often be seen within 100 yards of the land. But there are no docks, wet or dry, no yards for shipbuilding, nor even any cranes to be found along the whole length of the seaboard of this the most important emporium of the Turkish empire.

Seaward aspect.

Having thus given a sketch of the immediate boundaries of the town, we next proceed to describe the town itself. The different nations have different quarters of the town allotted to them; there is a Turk, an Armenian, a Greek, a Jewish, and an European quarter. On a bird's-eye view, these quar-

Quarters of the town.

ters map themselves out unmistakeably to the spectator. The Turkish quarter is recognizable by the uniform dinginess of its roofs, which contrast by their dull ensemble with the tall white and elegant minaret which rises out so frequently from the midst of their sombre mass side by side with the tapering cypress; the Armenian quarter contrasts with the other quarters surrounding it by the whiteness of its walls and houses; and the Frank quarter is unmistakeably pointed out by the numerous flagstaffs of its several consulates. The Turkish quarter begins at the south-eastern extremity of the town, and stretches along the bank of hills forming its south-eastern boundary. The Turks have built their houses tier after tier up the hill side, until in some places they seem to be placed as it were on shelves ranged along the face of a perpendicular embankment. They seem to have tacitly recognized by their choice of locality their unfitness for maritime pursuits; they have clung to the hill side, and relinquished the water edge to more energetic and enterprising races. Most of the Turkish houses have an open gallery on their upper story, into which their several upper rooms open. It is generally supported upon arches decorated with painting and inscriptions, and constitutes a characteristic feature in the Turkish domestic architecture. The streets in this quarter are narrow, overhung by projecting windows and converging roofs; they have often an open gutter running down their centre, and a raised causeway on either side paved in the same way as the street itself. The excessive steepness of the streets in this quarter renders the absence of covered drains less injurious to the inhabitants than one might have supposed.

Turkish quarter.

Along the water edge the same character of building prevails as is usual everywhere in similar situations. As we proceed from the large barracks in a north-westerly direction, we pass by the Turkish custom-house and a battery, which has been lately rebuilt, and has twenty-four embrasures; further on we find the ruined walls of the castle, once occupied by the Knights of Rhodes (see page 19), now inhabited by an entirely Turkish population within,

The "long shore" houses.

and having a Turkish guard-house in one of its outer angles. Passing on through a vegetable, and then through a fish, market, we come upon a second, the European, custom-house, in which imports are received; and after three quarters of a mile of marine store shops and drinking houses, the esplanade opens upon us, where the British and several other consular agencies are situated. Parallel to this portion of the water edge, and about 200 yards from that line, runs the Frank street; the street containing most of the shops, and, as its name would imply, most of the dwelling-houses of the Europeans. This street, with the space between itself and the sea, constitutes the Frank quarter. Frank Street.

Still following the water line we come, at the end of this handsome esplanade, upon a block of ill-built closely aggregated houses, a fragment of the Greek quarter, interposed between two portions of the European. Its streets are mere alleys; the houses are either the dwelling houses of the "long shore" Greek boatmen, or drinking houses of an almost exclusively Greek character, as the pictures on the walls show. It contains a second fish market and vegetable market; and part of the neighbourhood is appropriated to a colony of Maltese, chiefly boatmen. Along this part of the shore we may observe several wooden piers running out ten or twelve yards into the sea.

After this we come a second time upon well-built European houses. A long handsome but ill-paved street leads us parallel to the water's edge, and for a considerable distance, the limit of which is marked by the French hospital and a Turkish guard-house, the houses on either side are of a superior character, both as regards external appearance and internal comfort. Here are the French, Austrian, Prussian, Portuguese, and Greek consulates. As the street runs further north the character of its houses deteriorates, and before it terminates, and with it the town, at "the Point," a spot marked by a windmill some way short of the embouchure of the Meles, it loses most of its pleasing features. There is at this the northern, as at the southern, extremity of the town, a Turkish

barrack. It is capable of holding 115 men. Besides the windmill there is at the farthest extremity of the promontory, on the water edge, a large steam corn mill.

The town reaches no further in this direction, but a creek runs up inland for about a mile and a half, and on the Smyrna side of it there is an establishment for the repairing of ships; whilst opposite we see, at some distance inland, the village of Bournabat, where many of Europeans live in the summer time.

Returning back along the same route we find the Greek quarter on our left, between the street just described and the Mount Pagus, forming, in fact, a considerable portion of the base of the triangle, and stretching from north to south for nearly a mile and a half. The Armenian quarter also abuts upon the base of the triangle, and lies between the Greek quarter seawards and the Turkish towards the land for about three quarters of a mile, so that advancing from "the Point" inland south-east to the Castle Hill, we pass first through the Greek, next through the Armenian, and lastly through the Turkish quarter. At the south-west end of the Armenian quarter stands their large new church, which forms a striking object from all points. This portion of the town suffered very considerably from a fire in 1845, and when it was rebuilt after that event considerable attention was paid to the widening of the streets and other improvements. Though traces of the fire are to be recognized even now in the ruins of many houses, yet on the whole the quarter presents a pleasing and creditable appearance; the drainage is good, and in respect of cleanliness, it may well compare with any save an English town. The streets strike the attention by their great regularity and straightness, and the houses by the large size of their doors and windows. These are conditions rarely to be seen in an Asiatic town, and, though realized in the quarter allotted to an Asiatic race, show clearly that foreign models were followed in the reconstruction of this part of Smyrna.

The Armenian quarter.

The Greek quarter lies between the Armenian quarter, towards the land, and the Frank street

The Greek quarter.

and its northward continuation, looking seawards. The pavement in the Greek, as in the other quarters, differs from that in the Turkish, by possessing no causeway; as in the Turkish quarter, stones of all sizes are placed promiscuously in all parts of the roadway, but no attempt is made at any distinction in the Greek quarter between the middle and the sides of the street. A covered drain runs under the middle of most of the streets, and a stream of water rushes through it with considerable rapidity and volume. The roofing of these drains is often allowed to fall in, and it is surprising for how long a period the dangerous hole thus formed is allowed to remain unrepaired. In many parts of this quarter, however, especially in those towards its northern boundary, we find in place of a covered stream of sharply-flowing water, a sluggish broad uncovered drain, as offensive to the senses of the by-passer as deleterious to the health and vigour of those who live upon its banks. It is remarkable that many of the houses in the Greek quarter are one storied only; but it would be erroneous to suppose that houses of this description were occupied universally by members of the poorer classes. Many of these one-storied houses are built round a marble-floored court, which is generally of oblong form, with a fountain in the centre, and surrounded by a corridor, and they possess internal arrangements corresponding fully with the appearance of ease and comfort their exterior presents. The appearance of the whole quarter speaks of a general state of well-being and comfort amongst the restless stirring population it contains; the principal defects (besides those already mentioned) are the tortuosity of its streets, and the lack of uniformity in size and structure in the houses composing them. The Romaic population, though possessing this quarter to the almost entire exclusion of other races, is also to be found occupying patches of ground in the very centre of the quarters allotted to other nationalities. We have already mentioned one instance of this, where a block of Greek houses is wedged in between two portions of the Frank town along the seaboard. On the opposite boundary

of the town, we find an exactly analogous arrangement. High up on the hill side, which we have described as girdled by the Turkish quarter, we find a colony of Greeks clustered round their church of St. John, and thus breaking into what would otherwise be a continuous belt of Turkish houses.

The Jewish quarter.

The Jewish quarter interdigitates with the Turkish, Armenian, and Greek at a point marked by the large Armenian church already mentioned, and within a few yards of that building the peculiar features, buildings, and dresses of these four races may be found and studied in complete distinctness. The Jews occupy a considerable area, which is bounded on the west by the Greeks, and on the east by the Turks ; whilst the southern extremity of their quarter stretches some way up the hill side, and is entirely surrounded by Mussulman habitations. To the passing traveller this quarter is the least pleasing of all, and a more close examination will only confirm the impressions made by first appearances. Its characteristics are those presented by overcrowding and poverty, filth in the roadway, discomfort in the houses, and cachectic appearance in the inhabitants.

Surrounding country; lower hills.

The lower hills in the immediate vicinity of Smyrna are rocky, and to a considerable extent uncultivated. Patches, however, of various sizes, varying from an acre to an acre and a half, are every here and there redeemed from waste, and bear corn, wheat and barley, crops ; and the olive grows where nothing else does, braving the heat with its polished leaves, and supplying itself with moisture in the midst of aridity. Long horizontal bands of green, of which the large-leafed fig forms a considerable part, may be observed girdling these hills, telling of the watercourse below. The water runs in a channel formed of stones strongly fastened together, and covered internally with cement. It is supplied from the mountain springs, some of which are perennial, and are, so long as the higher mountains are covered with wood to the extent they are at present, likely to remain so. Some of these aqueducts run a very long course, and speak of a time when a wealthier and stronger government than

the present ruled in Asia Minor. The arches on which they cross and recross the valleys are, in several instances, works of considerable magnificence. They contain a large volume of water, six inches deep by eighteen inches broad, with a very rapid flow. They subserve three principal purposes. They (i) turn numerous corn mills, (the windmill, the invention of Asia Minor, is not common nearer than Vourlah, but the commonest kind of all is the mill turned by horses, &c.); they furnish (ii) water for irrigation; and lastly, they are (iii) the chief and best source of water the town itself, with its numerous fountains, possesses.

Mountains.

The loftier hills, which are at a somewhat greater distance from the town, and range from 2,800 to 3,500 feet in height, are, in most cases, covered with vegetation to their very summit. This is an important fact, as it both indicates the character of the climate, which indeed it also goes some way to constitute, and the supply of water which the country enjoys. The trees which clothe these mountains are not calculated for shipbuildiug purposes, as the large trees are principally pine and fir; and the oaks, which are even more numerous, are almost entirely of the dwarf species. Both kinds of wood, however, are extensively used for charcoal, of which the Levant possesses an unlimited supply, and the pine and fir furnish rafters for house building; whilst the Quercus infectoria and Quercus ægilops produce galls and valonea, all of them products of great local or general interest.

The Plains.

The several plains within a few hours' journey of Smyrna, and that which borders the city itself, present every variety in the degrees to which cultivation is carried. In some places we meet with large blocks of cultivated ground, the vineyard and fig garden alternating with the corn field, each and all enclosed with a stone or mud wall, and a ditch: bordering upon them we may find an equally extensive space of ground wholly waste and untilled, yet differing in no naturally conferred condition from its more productive neighbours. The valleys of the Cayster and its tributaries, the "pinguia prata Caystri," are at

present, owing possibly to their distance from the protection of any large Turkish town, and their consequent exposure to the depredations of robbers, who are to be found in any quantity in the islands lying close off the coast, in an almost entirely uncultivated state. A rich alluvial loam, of from four to six feet in thickness, bears nothing on its surface but the vitex agnus castus, and feeds nothing but a few sheep and multitudes of the feræ naturæ. This, however, is not the case with the valleys of the Hermus and Mæander, for a sketch of the latter of which, see Appendix, p. 105. An Englishman has within the last few years taken into his hands a large quantity of ground, under the classic ridge of the Tmolus, which separates the plain of Sedikioi and Boudja from that of the Cayster; and the rich green of his thickly standing crops contrasts pleasingly with the sun-burnt aspect of the surrounding untilled grass land.

The Gulph and Bay.

The town is built at the bottom of a gulph thirty-six miles long, the navigation through which is comparatively easy, and does not require the services of a pilot. There is a wide passage and deep water for the whole distance save at one point. This spot is marked by the point and Castle Sanjac on the south side of the bay, about five miles distant from the town. Towards this point, on the south side, there runs out a long spit from the northern side and the embouchure of the Hermus, and the clear interval between the two is little more than half a mile. It is not uncommon to see steamers and other vessels stuck fast upon this shoal, which is however free from rock, as being in great measure the deposit of the Hermus. During our residence in Smyrna this disaster never befel an English vessel. The increase of the shoal is not so considerable as to affect more than very remotely the future prospects of the port. It is as well to state that the name of the castle on this point is Sanjac, and not St. James' (St. Jacques) nor St. John's, as some of the best English maps have, somewhat amusingly, put it down.

Shoal at entrance of Bay.

See pages 18 and 63.

The name of the point is, like the castle upon it, of Turkish origin, and signifies Flag Point, Sanjac Bournou; but though the Turkish flag is, as the name

implies, very commonly flying on this point, and though extensive barracks are contained within the enceinte of its enormously thick walls, it is untenanted, save by one or two men, so malarious is its situation.

Mount Sipylus (3,205 feet in height) and the Two Brothers (2,920 feet), on the south of the straits, stand opposite to each other, like the portals of a large gateway. From these two points a horseshoe of mountain sweeps round and encloses Smyrna, and a maritime plain, of varying breadth and of almost unvarying fertility, within a wall of hills, in most places of less elevation than the two points at either end of the semicircle.

Political History.

Sketch of early history.

We possess historical records of the western coast of Asia Minor for a period of about 3,000 years. During this period we meet with several epochs of great material prosperity, but with one only of political independence and free institutions. At the date B.C. 1000, we find the whole of the western coast of Asia Minor, and the islands immediately adjacent, occupied by Greek colonies, and we have reason to believe that they maintained an independent existence for the 500 years following.

Era of Greek colonies, 500 years.

The Cyclopian walls, still to be seen in this country, testify to the existence of the kindred Pelasgic race, who were in possession of the soil previously to the Greek immigration; but we have no information as to their modes of life or government. The 500 years of independence, from 1064 B.C. to 560 B.C., the era of Crœsus, are marked by the names of Homer and Thales, of Sappho and Anaxagoras, and the language they spoke has ever since maintained its ground in the country in which they flourished. The trade and commerce of Asia Minor was of great importance even at this early period; the wool manufactures (Milesia vellera), and the luxurious habits of the Ionian merchants (Ἰωνικὴ τρυφή), are subjects of constant allusion in the classical authors. Crœsus, the King of Lydia, made (B.C. 560) the whole of the Greek

colonies in Asia Minor his tributaries, realizing thus an object at which his dynasty had been ineffectually aiming for 150 years, and inaugurating for the Asiatic Greek ages of unvarying political subordination under various political masters. It seems that jealousy and want of union amongst themselves was the cause of the subjugation of the Greeks of B.C. 560, as of the Greeks of 1453 A.D. Theognis, the aristocratic exile of Megara, alluding to the fall of these independent Republics, has the following lines:—

Ὕβρις καὶ Μάγνητας ἀπώλεσε καὶ Κολόφωνα
Καὶ Σμύρναν.—Theognis, 1104.

Ruin under Crœsus.

For some reason unknown to us, Smyrna was treated with unusual severity, the city was razed to the ground and was not rebuilt till the time of Alexander the Great. Hence it is that, save a passing notice in Herodotus, who mentions the transfer of Smyrna from the Æolian to the Ionian federation, we read nothing about its history in the writings of the great Greek authors.

Revival under Alexander.

Alexander, however, seeing how advantageous a site for a large city was to be found on the shores of the Gulph of Smyrna, collected together such Greeks as still claimed to be Smyrniotes, though their city had lain waste for 200 years, and founded it anew at a distance of about two miles from the ruins of the ancient town.

The site of the ancient town is marked at present by a paper mill belonging to the Turkish government, and lies considerably to the right of the Meles, whose situation is identified by the words of the oracle which was obtained to sanction the removal, and which bid the Greeks "cross the sacred Meles, and dwell on Mount Pagus." Under the successors of Alexander, Smyrna enjoyed, as we learn from inscriptions on coins and passing notices in contemporary writers, a pre-eminence amongst the cities of Asia, and a high degree of material prosperity. The same remarks will apply to the ages of Roman supremacy, during which Smyrna was celebrated for its schools of science and medicine, for its magnificent buildings and general opulence. It suffered several times during the epoch of the two

empires from earthquakes, which it is said have invariably, in ancient as in modern times, taken place in the month of June. An earthquake, which threw down a large portion of the whole town in 177 A.D., gave Marcus Aurelius an occasion for the display of that munificence which the Roman government so often displayed, and which not improbably contributed somewhat towards inducing the conquered Greeks to adopt the name, Ρωμαῖοι, though not the language, of their Italian masters.

Era of Roman empires.

Smyrna was one of the seven churches of Asia to which St. John addressed his warnings, and in the later days of Leon the Wise, it was placed in the position of metropolis to six other bishoprics.

In the year 1084 A.D. began that series of struggles between the Greek and the Turk which, after lasting 335 years, ended in the final establishment of the Turkish supremacy under Sultan Mahomet I., in the year 1419. A Turkish pirate, Tsachas, at the head of a considerable horde of his countrymen, established himself in this part of Asia Minor in the year 1084 A.D., and held his ground against all the forces of the Greek empire for about thirteen years. Though driven out in the year 1097 by John, the brother-in-law of the Emperor Alexius Commenus, he again obtained possession of Smyrna, and, after being expelled from it a second time, he seems at last to have perished by treachery on the part of Alexius and his kinsman, Aslan, the Turkish Sultan.

Turkish hordes attack.

Alexius and his immediate successors, taught by experience, fortified Smyrna and the other towns more immediately exposed by their vicinity to the seaboard, (at that time entirely Greek,) to the attacks of the Turk, who was then, it would appear, more competent than at present to maritime enterprise.

Whilst Constantinople was in the hands of the Latins, A.D. 1202–1261, Smyrna formed part of the Greek Empire of Nice. Under the heroic Theodore Lascaris I. and the statesmanlike John Ducas Vataces (Βατάτζης) Asia Minor appears to have enjoyed a season of prosperity and repose, a period of calm and lull preceding the tempest of rapine

and destruction which the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries brought with them.

It was in the thirteenth century that the castle, whose ruins still overlook the Town of Smyrna, and the Palace at Nymphi, the favourite residence of John Vataces, were built, each of which, by their parallel and horizontal rows of flat tiling interposed between stone masonry, shows, did we know it from no other sources, the comparatively recent epoch of its erection. [We may observe, that a totally different style of building is observable in the castle opposite the mouth of the Hermus at the entrance of the bay. This fort is of Turkish construction, and was erected at the times of the Venetian wars, A.D. 1656.]

Era of Turkish occupation.

In the fourteenth century Asia Minor was parcelled out by different Turkish chieftains into separate principalities, which maintained an independent existence as such until the days of Bajazet, A.D. 1400. The whole of the maritime country from Rhodes to Scutari came at this time finally into the hands of the Turks. A band of Catalans were invited by the Greek Emperor Andronicus, A.D. 1303, to lend their aid towards averting the catastrophe, but the Greeks have left it on record, that they found the friendship of the Catalans more hurtful than the enmity of the Turks. In 1313 Aidin, one of the Turkish emirs, possessed himself of Tralles and Smyrna, and his name is still borne by the former of these two places in one of the fairest valleys in the world. After a reign of twelve years Aidin transmitted the government of his principality to his son Omar. But whilst Omar was absent with his fleet on an expedition in aid of Cantacuzene into the sea of Marmora, the Knights of Rhodes made a descent upon Smyrna and seized the castle on the water's edge, from which all the attempts made by the Turks to dislodge them were ineffectual for a period of fifty-seven years. When we consider that this building is completely commanded by the fort on Mount Pagus, which was in the hands of the Turks, and that it is scarcely elevated at all above the level of the sea, which also was from time to time in the

See pages 104–106.

Held by Knights of Rhodes.

power of the enemy, and that enemy under the orders of such Princes as Amurath I., the organiser of the janissaries, and Bajazet, the fortifier of Gallipoli, we are compelled, even after making all allowance for the difference between the artillery of the fourteenth and fifteenth, and that of the nineteenth centuries, to pay no scanty praise to that band of heroes who held such a post for more than half a century.

The Knights of Rhodes, after a fourteen days' seige, A.D. 1402, fell, as their old antagonists the Turks had fallen, under the destroying sword of Tamerlane, who is said to have erected at Smyrna, as elsewhere, a hideous monument of his triumph in the shape of a pyramid of human skulls. Though the Turkish empire might have been thought wounded to death on the field of Angora, owing to the divisions of Western Europe and the imbecility of the Eastern empire, its deadly wound was healed, and in 1424, little more than twenty years after that event, we find the Turks in final possession of Smyrna. With the exception of a threatening demonstration on the part of a Venetian fleet in A.D. 1694, and a few outbreaks on that of the Romaic population at periods of great political excitement, Smyrna has remained exempt from the scourge of war from the times of Amurath II., A.D. 1424, down to those of Abdul Medjid. But though unscathed by war for the last 400 years, Smyrna has within that period suffered severely on two occasions from earthquakes. In 1688 little was left standing in the city, save the castle on Mount Pagus; all the archives and public records were destroyed: and in 1778 the earthquake was accompanied by a fire, which proved itself most destructive. From this latter scourge the city suffered considerably so recently as the year 1845.

Final cession to Turks A.D. 1424.

It is obvious from this short sketch that no conclusion can be drawn from the present condition of a town which has suffered so much from the destroying influence of the elements and the more desolating fury of man, as to the appearance it presented in its several eras of happiness and prosperity. But from the medals and other antiquities which, Dr. Chandler

says, Smyrna has contributed in greater abundance than any other Greek city, we are justified in inferring that its ancient importance as a commercial emporium and seat of government was not inferior to that which it at present holds.

The advantages of its position have enabled it to rise again and again from its ashes, and nothing can speak so strongly for its admirable situation as its repeated recovery from calamities which were sufficient to destroy finally and for ever its neighbours and rivals Clazomenæ and Ephesus.*

Population.

The population of Smyrna may be estimated as amounting to 150,000 souls. Such was the result come to by the last census, which was taken in 1849, and no material change either for increase or decrease has since been effected in the whole mass of the population. Nearly 100,000 of the inhabitants, *i.e.* two-thirds, are either Greeks or Turks, whose numbers were till lately all but equal, though now the numerical superiority is with the Greeks.

The rest of the population is made up by Armenians, Jews, Roman Catholics, generally of European extraction, and European settlers. There are few other towns in the world with a fixed and resident population consisting of so many distinct and distinguishable elements.

Turkish.

The Turks.

The dominant race numbers about 45,000 souls, this at least was their number when the last census was taken; but poverty and the conscription for the war have since then acted as a check upon the increase of the poorer classes, and the richer classes have suffered a diminution in their numbers, owing to their practice of procuring abortion, a habit to

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* Our authorities for the political history of Smyrna have been —(i.) Œconomus: Αυτοσχέδιος Διατριβη περὶ Σμύρνης. Malta 1831. (ii.) The several historians to whom he refers. (iii.) Gibbon's Roman Empire, chapters 59, 61, 62, 64.

which the poorer classes are likewise addicted. The rich Turks form but a very small portion of the whole nation, and the sources of their wealth are few. The rich man is either a government employé or a landed proprietor; the Turk of the present day seems in most cases incompetent either to successful manufacture or speculation.

Turks as officials.

The morality in vogue among Turks in the first of these lines of life has given rise to the proverb common in the East, "Δόσε τὸν Τοῦρκον χρήματα καὶ τύφλωνε." "Bribe the Turk, and blind him."

Turks as exporters.

It is more pleasing to contemplate the other principal source of Turkish wealth, the export of raw produce, for which branch of commerce the country is so well fitted, that neither the export duties of the government nor the extortion of its officials have been able materially to diminish it. The staple products are grain (Γεννήματα in the Greek returns), fruits (ὀπῶραι), wool (μάλλια), and drugs. Details upon these subjects are given elsewhere in this Report, under the head of Commerce, see pp. 73–87, and Appendix, p. 89.

Turks in trade.

Such Turkish capital as is invested in trade we find flowing principally in the following channels:—the manufacture of saddlery and horse trappings, and clothing for domestic use exclusively and of Asiatic pattern; of camel bells, horse shoes and nails, and a few of the coarser productions of hardware, such as locks, chains, &c. and the drums for packing figs. All these trades serve to employ the poorer Turkish population, but are of comparatively little importance to foreign nations, and in this point of view they differ from the carpet trade, a branch of commerce as yet entirely in Turkish hands.

Dress.

The upper class Turks have to a great extent adopted European costumes, though they still retain the fez as a mark of their nationality. The lower orders still wear the turban and the loose breeches, almost as large and flowing as a petticoat, fastened just below the knee. This dress sets off to great advantage the sturdy proportions so commonly to be met with among the Turkish labouring classes, and it contributes also not a little to give dignity to the exterior of their priests and moollahs. The Euro-

peanised Turk seldom appears to advantage in his new dress, though he is diligent in striving to copy his model as exactly as possible. He has, however, borrowed as little of real value from the European civilization which is now in full life around him, as he has done from that whose ruins are to be seen at every turn in the country his sword won for him.

Manners and habits.

The Turk has unfortunately adopted from the western nations the habit of drunkenness, the only sensual indulgence expressly discountenanced by his religion, and it is somewhat strange that this, a vice especially of colder climates and of more lively races, should to some extent have superseded here the practice of opium eating, a habit more congenial to the dreamy temperaments and burning sky of Asia. The leisure time of the upper classes is not employed in active sports or exercise; they either dream it away by the aid of their chibouque, or spend it in lounging walks and unprofitable visits. The working Turk spends his evenings at houses of entertainment closely analogous to the continental café, where coffee and tobacco furnish him with a solace within easy reach of the poorest.

Wages.

His wages have varied from 7 to 8 gr., 14*d.* to 16*d.* per diem, in 1853, to 12 gr., 2*s.* per diem, in 1856; and bread has varied at the same periods from 1*d.* to $1\frac{1}{2}d.$, $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ per lb., and meat from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per lb. Fish and vegetables of all kinds are so exceedingly cheap here as only to be estimated by the para, a coin equal to one-fifth of a farthing in value, and they are in this country most important articles of diet. A comparison of these several prices would lead one to infer, what an inspection would show, the existence of a well-nourished poor population.

Labour, chiefly agricultural.

It is in agricultural labour of one sort or other almost exclusively that the poor Turk is employed; he is scarcely ever set to perform any operation more complex than that of picking and sorting the raw produce which more skilled labourers will one day elaborate. We will here, however, enumerate the exceptions to this rule, the instances, that is, in which the Turk appears as a manufacturer, however unimportant they may appear.

Many of the poor Turks get their living by the manufacture of the circular drums so familiar to us as fig boxes. For further particulars, see under "Commerce," p. 104, in Appendix.

Also manufacturers, as of fig boxes;

There are in Smyrna many Turks employed as nail and lock manufacturers. The general order of things seems to be here reversed. Bar iron and pig iron are exported from England, and made up into nails and horseshoes in Asia Minor. The means at the disposal of the Turk for working up the raw material are of the very simplest description; such an apparatus as would be thought inadequate by a roadside blacksmith in England, a pair of bellows, a few bricks, an anvil, and a charcoal fire. These forges, such as they are, are not massed together as we find them in Constantinople, but are scattered about in the Turkish quarter, and are generally placed in the yard of a private dwelling-house. A tolerably good lock, of rough construction but of considerable strength, from one of these forges may be bought for 15 piastres = 2*s*. 6*d*.

And of nails and locks.

Thirdly, the porterage of Smyrna is almost entirely performed by Turks. As this is an employment for which no talent and no capital, save that of a strong body, is required, one would expect to find an excess of candidates for it, and a minimum of remuneration; and, were the porters not protected by their possession of a monopoly, and being formed into a guild, such undoubtedly would be the case. As it is the Smyrna porters pay heavy taxes to the Government, and in return have the monopoly of the conveyance of goods from the sea shore secured to them. They are divided into sections, and each of these is organised under one head, who receives a certain share of the profits, and manages the payment of their taxes to Government. There are 3,000 porters in Smyrna, most, if not all of them, Turks, who come from the interior to Smyrna at the age of from eighteen to twenty, and continue here till they have accumulated a considerable sum of money, after which they withdraw again to their homes. Iconium is the place whence most of them come. They have fixed rates of charges (4 piastres anywhere within the town for one bale of goods), and they do not generally make

And town employment as porters.

any attempt at extorting more than this. The loads they carry are enormous, as much as 300 lbs. being frequently placed upon one of them ; and their physical development is indicative of their great strength, great labour, and temperate life.

Gravestones worked by Greeks

We may note in passing, the apparently merely curious but yet not altogether insignificant fact, that the gravestones of the Turks, which are not unfrequently covered with inscriptions in their somewhat complex caligraphy, and consequently demand some skill in their workmanship, are entirely made by Greeks.

Turkish women.

The same account may be given of the female part of the Turkish population in Smyrna as in other cities of the empire. Infanticide and prostitution are rare, but the Turkish woman, with a view of retaining her hold on her husband's affections, very commonly procures the abortion of her unborn child. A larger proportion of Turkish women than is generally supposed possess the accomplishments of reading and writing, but beyond this degree their education has not advanced.

As manufacturers.

The Turkish women make linen and silken textures of various degrees of fineness for the use of their own households, and within their own houses, but the manufacture of the Turkey carpet and the richly embroidered and flowery praying carpet is also almost entirely carried on by female hands. For the construction of these fabrics, and also of others intended for display by the Oriental, and purchased as curiosities by the European, no other machinery than the very simplest is employed.

See Commerce, p. 85.

Religion and education.

The Turkish empire is in idea a theocracy, or perhaps we should rather say a prophetocracy, and in practice we find that their religious sentiments and beliefs exercise a most decided and tangible influence over the most trivial as well as the most important actions of Mussulmen.

Religious and educational institutions, more or less closely connected in most countries, are in the Turkish mutually independent, and as if by logical sequence no education is thought necessary to be provided publicly for the Turkish woman. Their schools are schools for boys only. These institutions are attached

to the mosques, of which there are eighteen in Smyrna, and which are all more or less richly endowed. The fees for instruction are very small and the scholars are of the lower and middle classes; the richer Turks providing themselves with private instructors. The Imaums are the teachers in the Turkish schools, the Koran and the writings of the commentators upon it are their class books; and, difficult though their language be both to read and write, a very large proportion of the poorer Turks can do both. So much of arithmetic is taught as is necessary for the simple business transactions of the Mussulman population. The cheapness of these schools and the absence of any manufacture where children's labour might be turned to account, explains the comparatively wide diffusion of this somewhat scanty education. Few of the Turkish officials in Smyrna could speak any Western language, one only, Ali Effendi, who held the post of Sanitary Commissioner, could both speak French fluently, and English enough for the common purposes of life. The proportion of wealthy Turks who have received an education in Paris, is much smaller than that of the corresponding class of Greeks. Lastly, there is no Turkish newspaper in Smyrna.

Priests.

The priests know little beyond the dogmas of their religion, and the influence they possess is trifling, though their wealth is not inconsiderable when estimated by a Turkish standard. Certain revenues designed for the relief of the poor and indigent are attached to the mosques, and of these the priests are the dispensers, but they cannot be said to take any active interest in the objects of this benevolence.

Conversion.

Such attempts as have been made in Smyrna towards converting Mahomedans have met with no success. A mission was founded in the place by the Church Missionary Society of Great Britain, twenty-four years ago; but at that time a law was in force which assigned the penalty of death to any Mussulman who forsook the faith of his forefathers, and this circumstance co-operated powerfully, with others, towards deterring any one from taking such a step. Books, however, and tracts in the Turkish language have been distributed amongst the Turks,

but the most successful field of labour has been found by the missionary to be among the Christian population.

Government of the Turks.

The consideration of the government of the country will naturally fall under the head of the Turkish population, as that population is the dominant or ruling race, and, till lately, occupied that position almost to the entire exclusion of all others. What follows, however, was written previously to the promulgation of the Hatti Scheriff of February 1856.

Pasha and Council.

The government of Smyrna is vested in a pasha and his council. For the office of pasha in this, the second city of the Turkish empire, a man of some note has generally been selected, and the present pasha has occupied posts of importance at the courts of Western Europe. Within the last twelve years Smyrna has had no less than six pashas, so short is generally their tenure of office, a fact at which we should not wonder when we think that they often have to contend at once with intrigue from without on the part of the representatives of some European power, and from within on the part of their private enemies, to whom their own misconduct has not unfrequently given a handle.

Tribunals, criminal.

The council associated with the pasha for the administration of justice in civil and criminal cases, consists of a cadi, the chief of the police, and the representatives of the several communities of Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Roman Catholic Rayas. The final decision rests with the pasha, who has not, however, the power of life and death. In every instance where a sentence of death is passed it is forwarded to Constantinople for the Sultan's approval, and before it is carried into execution it is necessary that the signature of the chief priest be also affixed to it. These formalities, and especially the latter of them, have frequently tended to defeat the ends of justice; their existence has opened a door for the practice of bribery and the procuring of delay in behalf of notorious criminals, though it may have occasionally prevented the perpetration of a judicial murder. Most of the cases brought before this tribunal are petty, and we may remark that there are no female prisoners to be seen in their prisons.

There is another council for mercantile cases. This council awards the punishments in cases of fraudulent bankruptcy and other varieties of dishonest dealing. The punishment consists in imprisonment for a longer or shorter period, and it is to be remarked that after the expiration of the term of his sentence the debtor is still held to be liable for the amount of the debt he has incurred. Mercantile.

Imprisonment is the punishment awarded to every variety of crime, except to such cases as, by their flagrant character, or by their affecting some individual under European protection, compel the authorities to inflict capital punishment. Punishments.

Criminals condemned to death are decapitated, and this punishment is, if possible, inflicted near the place where the offence was committed. If the offender be a Greek it is sometimes found necessary to execute him by night for fear of an outbreak on the part of his countrymen.

There are two places for the imprisonment of criminals, exclusive of those attached to the several consulates for the confinement of offenders under their protection. One, the Turkish, is in the pasha's residence, and was formerly the only establishment of the kind in existence in Smyrna. It consists of three or four small rooms, and is used for the confinement of offenders before they are tried, for the punishment of debtors, and of petty criminals. There is no arrangement apparently for separating criminals guilty of one order of crime from those guilty of another, but it is seen that the richer offenders generally contrive to obtain either complete privacy or the company of men of their own rank in life. The second prison is on a more extensive scale, and can contain 100 prisoners. It was formerly a khan, and when the want of increased prison accommodation made itself felt, the strong doors and walls of that kind of building made its conversion to that use easy and obvious; most of the prisoners here are homicides of one sort or another, and by nationality Greeks. Prisons.

See Commerce, p. 84.

In some cases the sentence of death has been awarded, but has been commuted, as the Turkish law allows for a five years' imprisonment on the payment of a certain sum of money to the murdered man's Punishments.

family or friends. Political offenders are also confined here, and we saw one large and tolerably comfortable room allotted to three Mussulmen, wearing however heavy chains, who had organized a rising of some thousand men at Aidin, in the interior. A certain ration of bread is allowed each prisoner from the Government, and, with the exception of spirits, they are permitted to purchase anything they please. The poorer prisoners provide themselves with bags, which they let down from their windows to receive such charity as the passers by may bestow upon them. Sentences are awarded and carried into execution in a manner that leaves much to be desired. As regards the carrying of a sentence into execution, it is often found that a prisoner who has wealthy friends has disappeared in an unaccountable manner, and has resumed his old practices in a new field. And it is impossible wholly to discredit the stories in every one's mouth, which go to show that money has nearly as great an influence with witnesses and judges previously, as with the jailors subsequently to the passing of a sentence.

Greek.

Greeks. Numbers.

At least one-third of the inhabitants of Smyrna are Greeks by blood, language, and religion; their numbers may be estimated as amounting to 50,000, thus exceeding slightly those of the Turkish population; and the events which have occurred within the last two years will be found to have increased their relative majority. Several considerations induce us to consider the Greek of Smyrna as a genuine representative and descendant of the ancient Hellene. First, the creations of ancient Greek art are strikingly reproduced in the living Greek. The characteristic bearing and expression of the old models are constantly brought before our minds as we meet the modern Greek in the streets. A most striking illustration of our meaning is furnished by a comparison of the Ulysses of the ancient artists with the seafaring Greek of the present day. But not only do we trace a correspondence between the tout ensemble of the sculptured marble and the general expression of the living individual, but we also

Identity with old Greek race.

Three arguments.

observe a close resemblance in the details of limb and feature in the two subjects of comparison. It is sufficient to specify the lips, nose, eyes, hair, and forehead as points of coincidence.

Secondly, Romaic has always been the language of the Asiatic Greek, even when Albanian was spoken in Athens, and πᾶσα ἡ Ελλὰς ἐσκλαβώθη.

Thirdly, The Greek of modern Hellas will allow that his race has suffered less from the intermixture of foreign blood in Asia Minor than in Greece Proper itself. We append his own words:—

"Κατὰ τὸν Μεσαιῶνα καὶ μετέπειτα ἡ Ελληνικὴ φύλη ἐφυλάχθη μᾶλλον ἄμικτος ἐν τῇ Μικρασίᾳ καὶ ταὶς νήσοις ἤ εν Πελοποννήσῳ."* From a work published at Syra, 1855, entitled Πανελληνίς, p. 138.

Raya, and protected.

Of the 50,000 Smyrniote Greeks, the great majority are subjects of the Porte, and are now to be governed according to the provisions laid down by the Hatti Scheriff of 1856. A few are Greek subjects, and are governed by Greek law; whilst from 2,000 to 3,000 are British subjects, and are under the jurisdiction of the British consul, and are governed by Ionian law.

Appearance.

The Smyrniote Greek has regular features of the classical model, a stature above middle height, and an expression of vivacity and restlessness in his countenance contrasting strongly with the acquiescent somnolence of the Asiatic races surrounding him. The upper classes have universally adopted the European dress, but the labouring population have a costume peculiar to themselves, they wear large and very loose breeches of blue calico fastening below the knee, and serving thus as a means for supporting the stocking. The fustanella, or multifold petticoat of the Albanian is not worn by the Anatolian Greek, though it is becoming the national dress of the Hellenic. A Guernsey shirt and sailor's blue jacket, with shoes and stockings, sometimes complete their dress. But the Greek who is a little above the very poorest class, wears generally a white shirt, and over it a braided waistcoat in addition to the jacket. All Greeks who have not adopted

* In the Middle Ages and subsequently, the Greek race kept itself more free from intermixture with other races in Asia Minor and the islands than in the Peloponnesus.

the European costume were a distinctive fez. This fez is taller than that worn by the Turks, and more nearly resembles what is known in works of ancient art as the Phrygian bonnet, but it differs from it too, in not being pointed at the extremity, and in having a long silken tassel appended. The colour of the fez itself is red, and to obtain this colour cochineal is largely imported from England and from Greece. As a whole, this dress is both sensible and becoming.

In every occupation and profession the Greek is to be found. There are Greek merchants, Greek lawyers, Greek doctors, each in the very highest walks of his calling.

Greek merchants.

The business of exporting and importing goods to and from Europe is becoming more and more monopolised by the Greek merchants day by day. They are compelled by the conditions of the insurance companies to employ European bottoms and sailors to transport their freight, and they have a line of English steamers in their employment, several of them reaching a tonnage of 1,200 tons, and numbering already five or six vessels named after the several countries of ancient Hellas, the "Arcadia," the "Laconia," &c. It is in great measure their local knowledge and connexions which enable them to compete with merchants of other nations at so great an advantage in this particular branch of business. There are many instances to be pointed out in Smyrna of Greek merchants who have raised themselves by their own exertions and industry from a very poor condition to one of opulence, and on the other hand it is said that their very wealthiest merchants are in the habit of furthering their own interests by methods which, though not positively dishonest, are yet such as none but the pettiest tradesman of another race would condescend to employ. The charge, however, of positive dishonesty is one very frequently brought against the Greek merchant, and to a certain extent our own investigations and experience have satisfied us of the truth of it.

Commercial character of Greeks.

It is not a little remarkable that in the rules for the election of a managing committee for the Greek College, a special proviso exists declaring the ineligi-

bility of fraudulent bankrupts for the office. That such a rule should be necessary shows two things :—

I. The frequency of the offence.

II. The scanty amount of public reprobation awarded to it.

Greek physicians.

The Greek physicians and lawyers receive their professional education in the schools of continental Europe, and especially in those of Paris and Athens. We have found the younger Greek members of the medical profession in Smyrna quite on a level with the theory and practice of the present day, and though no restriction or regulation exists as to the indispensability to the practitioner of a diploma from some respectable source, considerable regard is paid by the public to the possession of proper qualifications. The largest income made by any practitioner in Smyrna is made by a Greek physician, and amounts to 1,500*l.* per annum. The fee for each visit is 15 piastres = 2*s.* 6*d.*, but we believe it is usual for the Smyrniote practitioner to make several visits where one would be held amply sufficient in Europe. As a standard of comparison, we may mention that the head master (Διευθύντης) of the large school in Smyrna in which the Greek professional man receives his non-professional education has a salary of 2,000 (grosia) piastres per month, *i.e.*, a little under 200*l.* per annum.

Trades and workpeople.

The Greek is to be found in all the employments of humble life, whether as a small tradesman, artisan, boatman, or day labourer. The profits of the small tradesman cannot easily be estimated, but in several instances we have found the master of a shop of very humble pretensions to be the owner and occupier of a house in some other part of the town, the rent of which in Smyrna would have been 35*l.* to 40*l.* per annum. The wages paid to day labourers during the time that we were in Smyrna varied from 8 piastres = 16*d.*, up to 12 piastres = 2*s.* per diem. Previously to the war 7 piastres = 14*d.*, was the amount usually paid. The condition of the labouring population was at this time one of well-being, as the price of bread was 2 piastres per oke = 4*d.* for 2½ lbs., and a whole sheep might be purchased for 80 piastres,

i.e., about 13*s.* Indeed, squalid visages and ragged clothes are seldom, if ever, to be seen among the Greek population.

Mental state of poor.

As regards the intellectual condition of the lower class Greek, he is to be considered as intelligent and tolerably well informed; as regards his moral character, he is distinguished by his desire to better his condition and rise in the world, while, on the other hand, his aspirations are frequently counteracted by his own turbulence and volatility. Drunkenness prevails to a considerable extent amongst this class of the population; and this vice is encouraged by the great cheapness of intoxicating drinks, wine ranging from 4 to 5 piastres per oke, *i.e.*, 8*d.* to 10*d.* for as much as will fill two English quart bottles, and raki, a strong spirit, selling at from 1*s.* to 14*d.* for the same quantity. Much time is spent in drinking and smoking in cafés by the lower orders; and though these establishments are closed comparatively early in the evening, they are, while open, invariably crowded. Their walls are almost invariably hung thickly with prints of scenes and heroes of the Greek war of independence; and we may here pass by an easy transition to the consideration of that enmity to everything Turkish which is so universally found in all classes of Greeks, and so deeply imbedded in each individual heart as to be rightly viewed as constituting a part of the moral nature of the entire race. The passing traveller in Turkey cannot fail to become acquainted with the existence of this bitter feeling, and from what he sees of the easy going, uninterfering régime of the Turks, he is often puzzled how to account for it. Much of this hatred is to be ascribed to the comparatively recent occurrences of the war of independence, when the vilest passions and the vilest characters had freedom and abundant opportunity for the perpetration of every kind of cruelty, but much also is due to other causes.

Hatred to Turk: three causes.

i. Reminiscences of War of Independence.

Every one who has formed even a passing acquaintance with a Greek will have had several stories of wrong and extortion which he has suffered at the hands of the Turk related to him. Should this acquaintance ripen into confidence, the Greek will

ii. Extortion on part of Turk.

communicate how the Turk has been induced in many instances to commute a system of irregular and occasional exaction for one of organized and regular receiving of bribes. This plan was carried out to perfection, and on the grand scale, in Chios previous to the massacre. At the present time, when the eyes of Europe are turned towards Turkey and along the seaboard, where the protection or mediation of an European consul is easily procurable, instances of extortion are not now so exceedingly common as they are said to be, but a day's journey into the interior will still furnish the inquirer with numerous and well-authenticated cases.

iii. Personal insolence of Turk.

But there is a third cause, besides these two, which has operated more powerfully than both of them combined to imbue the whole Greek nature with the principle of hatred to the Turk. This cause is the insolence of the Turk in the daily transactions of common life, and his proneness to inflict personal outrage. Much exaggeration would naturally find place in the relation of cases of this kind, but the general truth of the assertion is unassailable. A Greek in the distinctive dress of his race could never enter the Turkish quarter of the town in which he lived without running great risk of suffering personal violence; and even in other parts of the town it was not unusual, until the time of the occupation of Turkey by the Allies, for a Greek to be saluted with the appellation "Giaour," and a blow at the same instant from an uneducated fanatical Turk; and to find on appealing for redress to one of the higher class of the same race that none was to be had. In numberless other ways the Turk has been wont to remind the Raya of his subordinate position by methods which, while they envenomed and alienated the feelings of his subject for ever, served to gratify his own splenetic impulse only for an instant. Distinctions and restrictions as to dress and other externals seem trifling and easy to bear only to those who are not subjected to them. The existence of this evil, as well as of the other evil of oppression and extortion, is recognized and condemned in the Decree of February 18, 1856, by which the Turk

has publicly declared, what was already widely known, that when left to himself neither justice induces him to respect the rights nor policy the feelings of his subjects.

Intensity of hatred to Turks.

But whatever the causes which may have engendered it, there exists in the Greek towards the Turk a feeling of hatred and bitterness, the very physical expression of which on the countenance of its possessor it is painful to contemplate. It is common alike to young and old, to both sexes, and all ranks.

Dislike of Roman Catholics.

A strong feeling of dislike and distrust exists between the Greek and the Roman Catholic population, which is fostered by the priests of either persuasion, and embittered by the difference of the two religious systems. The Greeks accuse the Roman Catholics of having joined with the Turks in the barbarous massacre of Chios; and, whether this be true or false, there is no doubt that on numerous occasions the Roman Catholic population has somewhat ostentatiously put itself in opposition to the interests of the Greek. At the present moment the Greek dislike for Rome is not wholly unmingled with fear, as great exertions are being made throughout the Levant at the present juncture by Roman Catholic emissaries of several orders, who are acting under the sanction and with the patronage of the French Government, and have at all events succeeded in causing great suspicion to attach itself to the intentions of what the Greeks call ἡ φιλόθρησκος πολιτική.— See p. 47.

Russian sympathies.

The attachment of the Greek to the Russian interest has been somewhat exaggerated. It has at all times been pronounced rather on its negative than on its positive side; it has been rather a community of enmity to the Turk than a complete union of feelings and interests, the "idem nolle" without the "idem velle" necessary to make up a "firma amicitia."

The upper class Greek, who is not much influenced by the priests, looked to Russia with the hope that by her means the Turkish Empire would be brought to an end; but he always felt and ex-

pressed a firm determination never to live under such a system of despotism as the Czar's. The lower class Greek, on the other hand, is considerably under the influence of the priest, and these individuals again are firmly attached to Russia through fear and jealousy of the rival Catholic Church, and have, in consequence, instilled into their flock attachment to their co-religionists (ὁμόθρησκοι) as one of their first duties. The Greeks, however, whatever aspirations they made for the success of the Russian arms while the event was yet doubtful, had always a shrewd suspicion that under another form of government they might be forced to curb somewhat their vaporing and volatile tempers; and, when free from the maddening influence of fanaticism and raki, they were not slow to confess the distrust they felt for their future friends.

Feeling towards the English.

The better educated Greeks are in the habit of expressing great admiration for the political institutions of England, with the working of which, travel in England has familiarized many of them. Amongst all classes the English have a reputation for truthfulness and straightforward dealing, and though slow to follow the example, the Greek is not slow to respect the character. An act of brigandage on the part of a Greek band had for its object, in June 1855, an English medical practitioner, resident permanently in Smyrna. Though the matter seemed to wear another aspect at the time, several reasons conspire to make us believe that an Englishman was selected then principally because it was thought that under the circumstances he would fetch a better ransom than an individual of any other nation. Fanatical and political reasons may have exercised influence over the making of the selection; but it is well known that the same band had been in the habit of pillaging persons of every variety of faith and politics indiscriminately.

Political aspirations.

To a certain extent, the political aspirations of the Greek are at one with those of the Roman Catholic and the Armenian; all alike feel the evils of living under a weak government, and all alike desire a government capable of enforcing order, and ensuring

justice and security to its subjects. So that this end be attained the Roman Catholic and Armenian are to a great extent careless under whose government it be brought about. It is not so with the Greek. An element of nationality enters into all his calculations. In his day dream of the future he reverts to the past, and sighs for the days when the Turk reigned in the inland city of Iconium, and the whole of the seaboard of the Archipelago and Asia Minor belonged to the Greek emperor in Byzantium The daily increasing monied and numerical majority of his race in the seaport towns of the Levant makes his hopes appear not wholly chimerical, but it is to be feared that his political education is not yet sufficiently advanced to allow of his assuming and retaining such a position to his own credit and the lasting advantage of the general commonwealth of nations.

The Greeks in Smyrna have for the management and support of their own institutions, such as their schools, hospitals, &c., formed themselves into a municipal body called the Γραικικὴ κοινότης,—the Greek community,—to the common fund of which every Greek is obliged to contribute according to his means.

Education. The Greek college.

No educational institution in Smyrna bears the name of university (Πανεπιστήμιον). The aim of its large school (called Εὐαγγελικὴ σχολή.) is expressly stated in its own programme to be the preparation of its pupils for the university. But a view of the curriculum of study pursued at the Greek college in Smyrna will show, that in communicating liberal as opposed to special, general as opposed to professional instruction, it more nearly approaches our notion of university than the universities of Athens and Syra themselves, whose especial aim it is to qualify men for the *exercise* of the three learned professions. From this programme, as given on the next page, we see that though no attempt is made at communicating the special knowledge, or at giving the special preparation necessary for the practice of any one profession, the course of study here prescribed contains every one of the branches of a liberal education—mathematics, language, history, and moral and

Course of study at the college.

Programme of the Seven Years Curriculum in the "Evangelical School" of Smyrna.

i. Year. 1st Class in "Hellenic School."	i. Practical arithmetic up to fractions. ii. Greek grammar. Etymology up to irregular verbs. iii. First volume of a book called "Elementary lessons in Greek:"—Contents, Grammatical Exercises; Æsop's Fables; Sayings of the Wise Men. iv. Ancient history in epitome. v. Sacred history of Old Testament. vi. Exercises written. vii. Writing. viii. Drawing.
ii. Year. 2nd Class in "Hellenic School."	i. Practical arithmetic to the end. ii. Greek grammar, etymology, irregular verbs. Derivation and compound words. iii. Second volume of "Elementary lessons:"—Contents, Plutarch's Lives, Xenophon's Hellenics, and Thucydides. iv. Epitome of Mediæval history. v. Political geography. vi. New Testament history. vii. Exercises. viii. Writing. ix. Drawing.
iii. Year. 3rd Class in "Hellenic School."	i. Practical geometry. ii. Greek grammar. Syntax. iii. Third volume of "Elementary lessons in Greek:"—Contents, Xenophon's Memorabilia; Plato's Crito; certain passages from his other dialogues; Plutarch's Ethics. iv. Elements of French. v. Political geography to the end. vi. Epitome of modern history. vii. Grecian history. viii. Sacred instruction. ix. Exercises. x. Drawing.
iv. Year. 1st Class in the "Gymnasium."	i. Theoretical arithmetic. ii. Greek syntax. Construction and idioms. iii. Isocrates, with the speeches of Lysias and Demosthenes, especially the Philippics and Olynthiacs, with reading aloud. iv. French. v. Natural history of man. vi. Mathematical and physical geography. vii. Ancient history not epitomised. viii. Sacred instruction up to end. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
v. Year. 2nd Class in the "Gymnasium."	i. Conclusion of arithmetic and algebra. ii. Syntax—second part. iii. Ancient Greek. Demosthenes De Coronâ. Speeches of Thucydides. Muses of Herodotus, with reading aloud. Specialties of Ionic dialect. iv. Composition. v. French. vi. Physics. vii. History of Middle Ages—not in epitome. viii. Church history. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
vi. Year. Lower 6th Class in "Gymnasium."	i. Algebra to end, and geometry. ii. Metrical instruction, as in heroics, &c. iii. Ancient Greek:—Homer's Iliad and Odyssey; Theocritus, Idylls and Epigrams, with vivâ voce reading. Specialties of Doric dialect. iv. Composition. v. French. vi. Psychology. vii. Roman history. viii. Ecclesiastical history. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
vii. Year. Upper 6th Class in "Gymnasium."	i. Geometry up to end. ii. Metrical instruction: Iambic metre, &c. iii. Ancient Greek tragedies of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; one or two odes of Pindar; remains of Alcæus, Sappho: reading aloud. Specialties of the Æolic dialect. iv. French. v. Modern history in extenso. vi. Epitome of logic. vii. Ὀδηγητικὴ ἢ Προπαιδευτική. viii. Christian ethics. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.

physical science. The course extends over seven years, and no pupil is admitted until he can read and write correctly from dictation, and work sums in the first four rules of arithmetic. The school has two divisions: the upper division is called the "Gymnasium," and is intended for pupils in the last four years of their course; the lower is called the "Hellenic School," and corresponds with the first three years of study. The whole school collectively is called the "Evangelical School" of Smyrna. With the exception of a registration fee of two francs for the lower and four for the upper school, the education is gratuitous. The institution is supported partly by the endowments it possesses in the shape of houses and landed property, partly by an annual allowance from the above-mentioned common fund of the Greek community. The head master (Διευθύντης) receives a salary of 2,000 piastres per month, *i.e.* nearly 200*l.* per annum. The two masters next in rank to him are required to possess certificates, from the Gymnasia in the kingdom of Greece, of having passed through the entire course of study there and the final examinations. In all there are seven masters, and a general rule forbids them to take any of the scholars as their private pupils; the number of pupils is upwards of 250. There is a good library in connexion with the school, which is provided with all the Greek newspapers and periodicals, and is at all times open to the stranger either to inspect or use. Considerable prominence is given, as a reference to the programme will show, to the study of the ancient Greek writers, and this, in combination with other causes, is rapidly bringing back the spoken language to the purity of the ancient standard. The best modern editions of the old authors are used in the school, and a considerable demand exists for them, as the booksellers' shops will show. It is right to add that owing to the general interest felt for and the eagerness to obtain education prevalent among the Greek population, this institution is in a creditable state of efficiency, and may bear a comparison with analogous establishments in other countries. It is under the protection of the British Government, and Her Britannic Majesty's

consul is the ultimate referee in all disputes which may arise.

Within the same walls as the Greek college and the richly endowed church of St. Photeina, with which all these institutions are connected, there are several other schools of more humble pretensions. There is a girls' school and two infants' schools, all of which are in good working order. In all there are within the precincts upwards of 1,000 scholars of one age or another receiving gratuitous instruction. Other schools

There is an infant school for boys attached to the church of St. John, in which there are 150 pupils of the age of from 5 to 12. The education here also is gratuitous, and the revenues of the school are furnished from those of the church of St. Photeina. The black-board and chalk is in use there as elsewhere pretty universally in Greek schools. The Ἑλληνικὸν σχολεῖον attached to the church of St. John was shut up when we visited the place; the necessity for it having been superseded by the Evangelical school. The girls' school in the precincts of St. John's Church had from 72 to 100 pupils at the times of our visits; they were mostly under the age of 14. The mistress received 300 piastres per month, 20*l.* per annum, from the revenues of St. Photeina.

There is another school for boys within the walls of the Greek hospital. All these schools are open to all classes. Many of the daughters of the richer Greeks go to a school kept by some Prussian lay sisters, whose instructions are of great value, and who educate many of the upper classes of the various nations in Smyrna. As a general rule the Greek lady is tolerably well informed, and can converse with spirit and intelligence upon many topics, but almost invariably she is animated and interesting when the prospects or past history of her nation are made the subject of discussion.

Though many of the villagers can neither read nor write, it is rare to find a Greek born in Smyrna destitute of these accomplishments.

It is common to see an announcement in the Greek newspapers, to the effect that such and such a Greek merchant or lady resident in London, Marseilles, or

Manchester, has left or presented so many thousand pounds to this or that school. The Greek of the present day emulates the munificence so largely displayed towards educational institutions by the Turk in his early days of greatness.

Greek newspapers.

Of the educational development of the middle class of any population, the character of their favourite journals may be taken as a tolerably good indication. Of the four newspapers published in Smyrna, three are Greek, and one French. Of the three Greek, one, the "Amalthea," is a journal of considerable pretensions; the other two, the "Star of the East" and the "Prometheus," the latter only recently set on foot, are inferior in size, execution, and respectability.

Newspapers.

They are all weekly papers, but the "Amalthea" generally publishes a supplement on some intermediate day, giving any fresh intelligence which may have arrived. It is of the same size as most of the Parisian daily papers, and as literary compositions and as political essays, its leaders are much more nearly on a level with those of the French papers than these are with those of their contemporaries in London. The first page is generally nearly entirely filled with leading articles alone. The paper devotes a large portion of its space to long extracts from the different European journals to which we frequently find the titles, Ὁ Χρόνος, or ὁ Ἑωθινος Ταχυδρόμος, for the English; ὁ Μηνύτωρ, or ἡ Ἐφημερὶς τῶν Συζητησεων, for the French; and ἡ Ἄρκτος and ἡ Ανεξαρτησία Βελγικὴ, for the Belgian newspapers. It has its own correspondents in the Levantine towns, but for other news it depends upon foreign journals. It always furnishes a very complete summary of the news of the week, and in this, as in every other particular, is far superior to any other paper published in Turkey. Every number of the "Amalthea" contains the commercial intelligence of the week, and also advertisements of certain English quack medicines; considerable, though not entire, liberty of the press is allowed. The price of the paper varies from 2 piastres (4*d.*) without, to 3 piastres (6*d.*) with a supplement. We have given extracts from this paper in the Appendix, p. 111–119, which will at once illustrate the character of the

journal, and afford information on several topics of interest in the East.

Books.

We shall estimate still higher the intellectual activity of the Smyrniote Greek, if we take into our consideration the number of Greek books which are imported into Smyrna from Syra and Athens, as well as those which are printed in Smyrna itself. Of this latter class many are volumes of original poems or plays, or translations from the French or other novelists; the former furnishes us with specimens of books of every class, and on every subject. There are several founts of Greek type in Smyrna, and amongst them there is one which may vie for clearness and beauty with the founts of Leipsic, Zurich, or Oxford.

Greek club.

There is a large club belonging to the Greek community, which is called the Greek casino, or Γραικικὴ λέσχη, but which exactly corresponds in purpose and intention to the English "club." It has a fine suite of rooms, and is much frequented throughout the winter months.

Churches.

Hierarchy.

There are six Greek churches in Smyrna, and an archbishop and bishop. The priests have considerable influence over the lower classes, who are tolerably scrupulous in the performance of what they hold to be their religious duties. The Greek hierarchy does much to foster the feelings of dislike which their flock entertains towards the Turk and the Roman Catholic, but their influence does not extend to the better educated portion of the population, nor their exertions to any attempt at really elevating the religious feelings of the lower orders. There are many scandalous instances of immorality to be found amongst the Greek clergy, and as a body it is exceedingly illiterate and ignorant.

Saints' days.

The Greek calendar contains a great number of saints' days, and all of them are kept as holidays. As their calendar does not correspond with that of the Roman Catholics, who also have many feast days, and observe them as such, suspension of business, more or less complete, for the purposes of recreation, is more common in Smyrna than perhaps in any other town in the world.

Their churches, as buildings, have an unimposing exterior, but their interior is covered with offerings and resplendent with gold and silver gilding. They contain numerous pictures of the Trinity, of the Virgin and the Saints, especially St. George; but no images nor any musical instruments.

A considerable number of Greeks belong to the Roman Catholic, but scarcely any to the Protestant Church.

Jewish.

Numbers. There is a numerous colony of Jews in Smyrna, as many, it is not improbable, though uncertain, as 17,000; and, owing to the comparative liberty and immunity from oppression which they here enjoy, their numbers are rapidly increasing. The Smyrniote Jew is easily distinguishable from the other races with which he is here intermingled, his personal appearance being most marked, though it is different from that with which we are familiar in his brethren in England. He is generally tall, almost always fair-haired, with light and frequently blue eyes, a straight nose, and an effeminately white skin. The expression in his countenance, though not suggestive of oppression, yet denotes acquiescence in subordination; he seems to have bowed his shoulder to bear, and his mind to the adoption of slavish thoughts and artifices. Jews are to be seen in every town in the Mediterranean, and it is worthy of remark, that though they differ very much in physical development, as their Polish, Italian, or Spanish origin would lead us to anticipate, their physiognomical expression is everywhere the same. The Jew in Jerusalem is a Polish Jew; he is short of stature, and wears long curls of black hair, forming thus a very complete contrast to the Smyrniote Jew; yet so truly identical is the expression on the countenances of the two representatives of the race, that a stranger, familiar only with the Smyrniote variety, would on entering Jerusalem instantly recognize the nationality of the first Jew he met. The same remarks may be applied to the cases of the Jews of Egypt and Morocco. The identity extends, however, deeper than the expression of coun-

Appearance.

Expression.

tenance; the moral character and hygienic condition of the Jew is the same in all the different parts of the Levant. The vilest trades and the filthiest portions of each town are always in the hands of Jews. They are as prone to deceit and fraud as the most deceitful of other nations, but they lack their enterprise and fail of attaining their success. There are in Smyrna few wealthy Jews; the rich Jews are not very rich, whilst the poor are very poor. The condition of the poorer Jews in Smyrna is more abject than that of the poor of any other nationality residing here; their dwellings are more crowded, their streets more dirty, and their diet worse. Yet in Smyrna considerable indemnities have been secured to the Jew by certain firmans granted him when he was driven out of Spain by the persecution of the Inquisition. He is not molested by the Turk, and is on the same footing, as regards taxation, with the dominant race. But whatever insults the Greek receives at the hand of the Turk are transmitted by him to the Jew, and at seasons of religious excitement, such as the Greek Easter, it is unsafe for a Jew to be seen near the Greek quarter.

Character.

Poverty.

Their means for education are small; they possess here a few wretched schools, and it is our experience that the proportion of Turkish women who can read and write is larger than that of the Jewish. Their wants in this respect are so great throughout the Levant as to have attracted the attention of their wealthier brethren in Europe, and within the present year, 1856, we have met with Jewish agents travelling with the view of inspecting and reporting upon the condition of their schools in the East.

Educational deficiency.

They speak among themselves a mixture of Turkish and Spanish. Many, however, of the Jews act as brokers to the English merchant vessels which enter this port, and they speak English more fluently and with a better accent than any other race of foreigners in the Levant.

They have not adopted European costumes to any great extent, and they possess here absolutely no political consideration or influence.

Armenian.

Resemblance to the Jews.

The Armenian nation resembles the Jewish in several particulars. Both nations have for ages acquiesced in political subordination to a variety of masters; both are almost always found employed as merchants, bankers, or tradesmen; both are scattered throughout a large portion of the globe in pursuit of these callings; and, lastly, both have alike obtained a character for chicanery and unfair dealing while thus employed.

Unlike them in other points.

In the East the Armenian contrasts with the Jewish nation by its greater material prosperity and mercantile importance, by its adoption of European costumes and manners, and by its physical peculiarities.

Appearance.

In external appearance, the Armenian more nearly resembles the European races than any other Asiatic people does, and occasionally it is difficult even for a practised eye to distinguish an Armenian of the upper classes from a Greek in the same rank of life. The Armenian face is slightly more oval than the Greek, and the nose is elevated somewhat beyond the line of the frontal bone, and is not unfrequently arched. The development of their limbs, hands, feet, and lips, agrees with the European type.

Numbers.

There are in Smyrna 10,000 Armenians, who have been settled here for 250 years; the greater part are Turkish subjects, but there are amongst them a few Russians. In Smyrna there are very few poor Armenians, and as a general rule they are well educated and intelligent. The quarter of the town in which they live contrasts favourably with most of the others by the cleanliness and straightness of its streets, the whiteness of its houses, and the large size of its doors and windows.

Merchants.

Mercantile enterprize, both as regards exports and imports, distinguishes the Armenian race, and in conjunction with Greek merchants, they employ a considerable number of English steam ships, which make up what is called "the Greek line," and ply between Liverpool, Constantinople, Smyrna, and Alexandria.

See pp. 30 and 86.

Banking also is a branch of commerce very commonly carried on by Armenians, and those thus occupied are frequently amongst the richest subjects of the Turkish empire.

Sympathy with Russia.

The political sympathies of many of the Armenians are with Russia, in whose territories the head of their church, and a large proportion of their fellow countrymen reside. But it is to be observed, this predilection is not founded on any aspirations after political independence, but merely on a natural preference of security and ease to the reverse state of things. In origin, therefore, at least, the Armenian's liking for Russia contrasts strongly with the Greek's. The Armenians, however, particularly distinguished themselves by the rejoicings they made on the occasion of the illuminations after the taking of Sebastopol, and though they have a well-earned character for deceitfulness, it is difficult to disbelieve them when they say, that they love best the nation which will best secure them from insult in social, and injustice in commercial dealings. Their wishes are not patriotic, but self-interested; they desire merely a change of masters, a civilized in the place of a barbarous one, a strong in the place of a weak government.

Ill-feeling to Greeks.

A very rancorous feeling exists between the Armenian and the Greek populations, springing, so far as we have observed, from commercial jealousies, and not from religious antipathy. We have found in places such as Magnesia, where the Armenian is far outnumbered by the Greek race, that the Armenian will often disown his nationality before a stranger, and strive to pass himself off as a Greek or Roman Catholic Raya. Though this is a common occurrence in the interior, it never came under our observation in Smyrna or any other seaport town, where the Armenians form generally an important fraction of the moneyed world.

Church and education.

The great mass of Armenians here belong to their own national church; there are, however, a few Roman Catholics among them, and the missionaries of the Protestant churches have been more successful with this than with any other nationality in Smyrna.

The Armenian church has an archbishop in Smyrna, and they have nearly completed the building of a large church, which forms a conspicuous object even amongst the numerous mosques of the town. As a body they are well educated. They have several schools in Smyrna, and a college in which the modern languages and other branches of a liberal education are taught gratis. They have printing presses in many of the chief towns of Europe, though not in Smyrna, and their maps and books possess every typographical excellence. They have recently established a school for girls, in addition to their previously existing boys' schools.

Roman Catholic.

Numbers.

There are in Smyrna from 7,000 to 8,000 Roman Catholics; some are Rayahs, but a large proportion enjoy the protection of some one of the European consuls. There are few of them in the labouring class. Most of the shops in the Frank street belong to Roman Catholics, either themselves emigrants, or, what is more common, the descendants of emigrants from France and Italy. Many, also, of the chief mercantile houses in Smyrna belong to members of the same class. They possess considerable political influence, as assiduous attention is paid to their interests by the representatives of the two great Catholic powers. Considerable sums of money are contributed by the French Government towards the support of the numerous Roman Catholic schools here. It is owing to this that the French language has become so much more generally spoken here within the last two years, but, though a Smyrniote Catholic will generally address a stranger in French, he much more commonly, not only in business, but also within his own family, makes use of the Romaic language. Besides their large Propaganda College, the Catholics possess several other schools where the education is gratuitous, and all forms of faith are admitted. The teachers are French monks, and on festival days the French flag is hoisted over most of these institutions.

Political influence.

French support lent to Catholic institutions.

The monks of Syria and Palestine are, it may be remarked, on the contrary, generally Italians. The general scope and aim of the Catholic seminaries and religious establishments in the East may be illustrated by the following notice of one of their institutions in Alexandria, which we quote from a handbook to the coasts of the Mediterranean issued at a steam-boat office:— Object aimed at.

"Les Sœurs de la Charité, ces dignes filles de Saint Vincent de Paul, possèdent à Alexandrie une maison de leur ordre; elles élèvent gratuitement une grande quantité de jeunes filles indigènes, auxquelles outre les travaux de leur sexe, *elles apprennent à aimer la France en leur en enseignant le langage.* Là dévouées comme partout, elles ont créé un hôpital, dans lequel elles admettent sans distinction de religion tout être souffrant; c'est un véritable apostolat qu'elles exercent, et *la France est peutêtre appelée un jour à recueillir le fruit de leur dévoûment.*"

The conduct of the Roman Catholic priests contrasts favourably with that of the Greek, both as regards the discharge of his duties and his own private morality. There are several Roman Catholic churches in Smyrna, and two of them are conspicuous and striking edifices. Romish priests and churches.

The poorer class of Catholics do not possess so fine a physical development as the Greeks, and the upper classes copy as closely as they can Parisian costumes and manners. It is rare for a Catholic to intermarry with a Greek family, and the priests employ all the means in their power to prevent such unions from taking place. Poor.

The Levantine Casino is a club of similar character to the Greek, and its members are principally Catholics.

There are two or three hotels in Smyrna kept by Catholics. At one of them the daily charge was two Spanish pillar dollars (colonnatas), *i.e.* a little over 9*s*. The town is also sufficiently Europeanized to possess several boarding houses, one of which at least contrasts favourably with the hotels both in charges and comfort. Hotels and Lodgings.

Furnished apartments are also to be got both in the Frank and Greek quarters, and for these the English paid sums varying from 1*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* per month.

In these points Smyrna contrasts with most towns in Turkey, but she differs from every other in having every house in every street numbered.

Protestant.

Wealth of Protestants.

The number of Protestants in Smyrna is about 2,000. Many of them are English, but some are Dutch, and some Americans. To this class many of the wealthiest commercial houses in Smyrna belong. The greater number of the Protestant population are of European birth, and all are under the protection of the British, or Dutch, or American consulates. Like the Roman Catholics, the Protestant races have chapels and hospitals in connexion with the several consulates, but as there are few poor amongst them, the hospitals are chiefly devoted to the use of the mercantile marines of the different nations.

Club.

A club, the European Casino, is in great measure supported by this, as the Levantine by the other section of European settlers.

Country houses.

The richer merchants of all the nationalities in Smyrna have country houses in the villages in its neighbourhood, but a larger proportion of them belongs, perhaps, to the members of the Protestant races than of any others. The villages of Bournabat and Boudja are the principal centres for the summer residences of the Smyrna merchants, but some are also to be found at Sedikioi. The merchants come into the town every morning from these places throughout the summer months and return in the evening. The arrangements in these summer residences are copied exactly from the models furnished by houses built for analogous purposes in Europe.

Languages.

Turkish is spoken by a large proportion of the inhabitants of Smyrna; the Turks, who by themselves form nearly one-third of the entire population, speak it, with few exceptions, even amongst the highest classes, almost exclusively; and a knowledge of, and familiarity with, the language, is generally possessed by every business man of the other races. Turkish.

For commercial purposes the Italian and French languages are much employed; but the use of French is becoming more, and that of Italian less general. The "Lloyd Smyrnéen" appears three days a week, but the "Nunzio Commerciale" only three times a month. *See* Appendix, p. 107. French and Italian.

There are many families in Smyrna who have immigrated from the coasts of the Adriatic, and to whom Italian is consequently the most familiar tongue; but we never met with any Smyrniote who could speak Italian and Italian only, although it is easy to find either a Frenchman or a Greek or a Turk, who speak nothing but their own native dialects. This will illustrate the relative preponderance of the several languages. The use of French is becoming more general, owing in great measure to the numerous Roman Catholic schools under the patronage of the French Government in which French is taught gratuitously. It is to be remarked that though an European will almost invariably find himself addressed in French whenever he enters a shop in Smyrna, the shopman, even though he be a Roman Catholic, and only one generation removed from a native born Frenchman, will give all his orders to his assistants in Romaic. The same thing is constantly to be observed in Roman Catholic families; though to the European visitor French is spoken, the affairs of daily life are all carried on by means of Greek.

English is spoken by a considerable number of the merchants of all nationalities, but by very few of the lower orders. There is in Smyrna no school for the poorer classes in which English is taught. There is English not spoken because no schools for poor.

an institution of this kind in Jerusalem supported by voluntary contributions, and small as the population of that city is, it contains a more numerous native population speaking English than Smyrna, which is about fifteen times larger. There are, however, a considerable number of Jews who hang about the bazaars and act as brokers to the English merchant ships, who speak English with a fair accent and possess a vocabulary quite sufficient for all common purposes.

Amongst themselves the Jews speak a corrupt mixture of Spanish and Turkish.

The Armenian language is spoken by very few who do not belong to that nationality.

Relation of Romaic to ancient Greek.

It will be useful to the great mass of educated Englishmen to know in what way their somewhat toilsomely acquired knowledge of ancient Greek may help them towards speaking, writing, and understanding the modern Romaic. An acquaintance with a language spoken along nearly the whole extent of the Mediterranean and Black Sea coasts by an enterprising mercantile nation will be seen at once to be a valuable accomplishment, and by no one can it be acquired at a less cost of time and trouble than by the Englishman of average education.

Closely related as Italian is to the ancient Latin language, Romaic is much more nearly identical with the ancient Greek. The inflexions of the modern Greek are the same, with a few exceptions, as those of the ancient; the accents are the same; and there is no doubt in our minds that Greek as spoken by the educated Athenian of 430 B.C. would at once be understood by the upper classes of the modern Romaic population.

The languages as written.

As regards the languages *as written*, we may take the official translation of the late Hatti Houmayoum, of February 1856, as an authoritative document and standard for the comparison of the two. Now the whole of this document is perfectly intelligible to the scholar who is moderately familiar with ancient Greek, and the differences as seen from his point of view are merely the few following :—

i. For the old word οὐ, οὐκ, οὐχ="not," we use in

modern Greek the word θὲν, shortened from οὐδὲν, but, whilst employing οὐδὲν thus, with a force somewhat different from its ancient usage, we substitute a fresh word, κἀνὲις, κἀμμία, κἀνέν, for it in its pristine employment as="none."

ii. The word νὰ, from the ancient ἵνα, is employed nearly as extensively as the conjunction "that" in English, more extensively therefore than ἵνα in the old Greek, which = "that" when denoting a purpose, and to a certain extent coinciding in use with the infinitive as employed in that language.

iii. The use of auxiliary verbs in the futures and perfects where we have inflexions in the old language: ἔχω γρᾶψαι=γέγραφα, I have written; θέλει ληφθῆ= ληφθήσεται. It is in this combination almost exclusively that the old infinitive survives; the dual number has wholly vanished, and in the Hatti Scheriff, as in common conversation, no trace of a dative case is to be found.

iv. Lastly, the following words and combinations of words which we find in this official translation are from one reason or another alien to the ancient Greek idiom:—

(α.) μὲ with an accusative, as="with," like μετὰ with a genitive in the old language. μὲ τὴν συνδρομήν = 'with the concurrence."

(β.) ἀπὸ with an accusative instead of a genitive. This is not universal, though general; we find ἀπὸ ἡμέρας εἰς ἡμέραν in the Hatti Scheriff, as well as ἀπὸ τὴν κυβερνητικὴν γλῶσσαν.

(γ.) The word ἀκόμη="encore," φιρμάνιον="firman," κλάσις="class," κωδικεύω="codify."

The differences between the two varieties of the Greek language will seem to be very few when they are referred to this standard for comparison; but that it is a fair standard, and authoritative at least in this point of view, will be clear when we consider,—1st. Its length. 2nd. That it was written expressly for the Greeks and read aloud publicly to them in all parts of the Turkish empire, and that no other translation than this, the official one, was allowed to be published.

There are, however, a few other points of contrast between the Greek and the Romaic *as written*, which we cannot illustrate from this document.

(α.) The constant use of diminutive forms in modern Greek: "ψωμίον" = "bread;" "τυρίον" = "cheese." A modern Greek grammarian, while noticing this peculiarity, quaintly enough connects it with the diminution of political influence under which his race has so long suffered.

Borrowing western idioms, &c.

(β.) A slavish following of western turns of thought and expression, as well as of western words. Everyone will see that τύπος, as expressing the results and the working of the PRINTING *machine*, is a more vivid and better word for the thing than πιεστήρια, the PRESSING *machine*, where we have merely its mechanical structure brought before us. Yet, save among the better educated Greeks, the latter word is used by preference. In numberless instances where the western languages employ to express a certain idea a phrase infinitely less apt than that furnished by the old Greek, the modern Greeks have chosen to follow the inferior and foreign idiom, so that, in reading the Romaic, one is often reminded of the unidiomatic literal translations which the schoolboy makes with the aid of a lexicon. In cases, again, where the western languages have only one word to express several different ideas or different modifications of one idea, whilst the ancient Greeks had separate words corresponding to each variation in the thought, the modern Greeks have frequently chosen one of these words and widened its application until it has become co-extensive and equally inaccurate with the western expression. Γυρίζω, in modern Greek, is used as equivalent both to γυρίζω and στρέφω in ancient Greek; the modern Greek thus copying the western nations in having only one word to express the several meanings of the word "turn."

Western *words*.

Romaic *as written* has borrowed fewer words than Romaic *as spoken* from the foreign languages. These words are borrowed from the Latin, the Italian, and the Turkish principally, but the better educated writers make day by day less use of them, and, under the influence of the purist reaction (καθαρισμὸς τῆς γλώσσης,) at present at work, they will shortly become

obsolete. We give the following instances :—σπίτιον = "house," from the Latin *hospitium;* ἀβαρία = "avaries," injuries, from the French ; σειριανίζω = "to go into the country," from the Turkish.

Romaic *as spoken.*

Romaic *as spoken* may be compared with the ancient Greek either as spoken in ancient Greece or as pronounced and read in the modern fashion introduced by Erasmus. To guide us as to the ancient pronunciation of ancient Greek, we have :—

Ancient Greek *as pronounced in Greece.*

(i.) The writings of Greek grammarians, who, however, seldom refer to any other language than their own.

(ii.) The alliterations and imitations of unchangeable sounds to be found commonly in Aristophanes, and also scattered through other writers, as, *e.g.*, the oracle given, Thucyd. ii. cap. 54. for οι and ι.

(iii.) The adaptation of Greek words into other languages, and vice versâ, as, *e.g.*, the transformation of the Greek Αὐθέντης into Effendi.

Such an investigation would be misplaced here, but we have said enough to indicate the line of research which will lead to the conclusion, probable also on geographical and historical grounds, that the language spoken by the ancient Greeks was pronounced much in the same way as that spoken by their descendants inhabiting the same countries.

Romaic *as spoken.*

Old Greek *as pronounced in England.*

But leaving a comparison where we may be thought to be explaining obscurum per obscurius, we will state the differences between the Greek pronounced by the English scholar and the Greek uttered by the modern Greek himself. There are practically no diphthongs in Romaic, and deference to the *accents*, and not to *quantity*, regulates the pronunciation of each single word.

In a Greek letter written by one of the ill-educated, no diphthong (save ου="oo" in "good") will ever be found; αυ="af" or "av," and ευ="ef" or "ev," see above (iii.), and the rest being pronounced as in French, will be found represented by ᾱ or ῑ or ῡ.

Taking bad spelling a second time as an index to pronunciation, we can show from it the predominance that considerations of accent have over considerations of quantity. The half-educated Greek spells γράφητε,

the second person plural of the subjunctive, in the same way as γράφετε of the indicative, and he pronounces both words as we pronounce the latter of the two. And it is not very easy to catch the difference between the two words, even when uttered by a well-educated Greek, as it lies in an almost imperceptible dwelling upon and lengthening out of the second syllable. The rules of accentuation are the same for a Romaic as for the ancient Greek, and a thorough acquaintance with accents, and a pronunciation strictly in accordance with them, will enable any Greek scholar who knows the modern force of the letters of the alphabet, to make himself understood by any Greek of the upper classes, and to understand their replies to him. The same would not be the case were he to address himself to one of the lowest classes; but the reasons for this would be analogous to the reasons which prevent the upper classes of the south of England from understanding the dialect of the Yorkshire miner; and it would not be because the two extremes of society used a radically different language. In two classes of words only is there any deviation from the ancient system of accentuation to be observed, and this deviation is confined to the uneducated; the aorist active is occasionally pronounced by the poorer Greeks as it is pronounced by the English schoolboy; "ἐπώλησα"="I sold," is pronounced as if it were written ἐπωλήσα; and the same is the case with nouns like ἀλήθεια and εὐγένεια; they are occasionally pronounced as though they were written ἀληθεία and εὐγενεία, and belonged to the same class of nouns as δουλεία and βασιλεία.

Climate.

Smyrna lies in lat. N. 38° 25′ 36″, long. E. 27° 6′ 45″. Conditions more forcibly affecting its climate are furnished by the character of the mountains surrounding it, and the extent of cultivated soil and of forest land in its immediate neighbourhood.

There are no mountains in the neighbourhood of Smyrna like those which run along the whole of the southern coast of Asia Minor, and preserve on their summits a covering of eternal snow. *Mountains not snow capped.*

The highest peak within two days' journey of Smyrna does not attain a height of 3,500 feet, and it is seldom, even in winter, covered with snow for more than two days together.

Immunity from those sudden alternations to snow-chilled mountain winds from blazing heat, which are so common and so injurious, not only in the parts of Asia Minor just mentioned, but in places like Florence and Montpellier in southern Europe, is in consequence enjoyed in Smyrna.

The valleys in this part of Asia Minor are very generally cultivated and covered with verdure during the spring, autumn, and winter months, though considerably burnt up and parched from the middle of June to the end of August. But at all times the eye finds abundance of vegetation to rest upon in the green foliage of the fig and pomegranate, and the glaucous leaves of the olive, the cultivation of which contributes, though in a less degree than that of corn crops, to the opening and breaking up of the soil. *Cultivation, wide.*

Extensive sheets of wood land are to be seen in the vicinity of Smyrna, either stretching along the sides or clothing the summits of the mountains. This condition, however, is common to the greater part of Asia Minor, in spite of the extensive use made of charcoal, and it is a most important co-efficient in the constitution of climate. Abundant wood.

The hot season in Smyrna commences with the month of June, and begins to lose its intensity towards the end of August. At this time the thermometer will often indicate a heat of from 80° Fahr. to 90° Fahr. in the shade, whilst on the other hand, we have often found it a difficulty, within the period from the middle of January to the middle of March, to keep up a constant temperature of 60° Fahr. in a sick room day and night. In the open air the thin ice formed during the night generally thawed before 10 A.M., and the thermometer never indicated so low *Hot season.*

a temperature as 32° for the whole period of the twenty-four hours.

Thermometric register in Appendices, pp. 90–102.

A thermometrical register will be found in the Appendix pp. 90–102, extending from March 6, 1855, to August 20. In it the winter months January and February are not included, and the lowest temperature it records is 53½°, March 17, 1855. As the mention of ice already made would lead one to infer, a much lower temperature than this is not unusual, and we have seen the thermometer remain nearly stationary at 45° for some days together, even at milder times. The greatest variation which this register records for any one day is one of 6¾°, March 25, 8 A.M., from 60½° to 67¼° at 2.30 P.M. The same amount of variation is recorded for the succeeding day also, from 63½° at 8 A.M. to 70° at 4.45 P.M. The month of April is remarkable for the small amount of variation in the amounts recorded for each day, whilst the temperature of the whole month varies from 55½°, the lowest, to 65°, the highest temperature. Rapid changes of temperature, as may be seen from the notices of the weather appended to the several records, foretell at Smyrna as elsewhere the coming of a storm; 70° is recorded from March 26th, but does not occur again until May the 6th, when we find 73½° recorded; 80° occurs only once in the month of May, and that on the last day of the month, where we find 82¼°, and though not attained on any day between June 5 and 15, it is a common number for the rest of that month. 90° we find on the following days; July 13, 90½°; July 24, 90°; July 25, 90¼°; July 26, 91¾°; August 4, 90⅔°.

The heat of the season appears to culminate about the second week in August, and the heat of each day between 4.0 and 5.0 P.M.

The Inbat.

The sea, which in all places and in so many ways influences climate, especially favours that of Smyrna by the breeze here called the Inbat, which springs up every afternoon during the hot season. So soon as the heat of the sun has had time to produce the difference, which by the laws of heat it does, in favour of the atmosphere covering the land, the cooler and

denser sea breeze rushes in upon the hotter and more rarified land air, bearing with it freshness and moisture. This breeze is popularly called "The Doctor of Smyrna," so universally are its vivifying powers recognized. In the hot weather it is very seldom that a day passes in which the Inbat fails, and this great regularity is to be ascribed possibly to the peculiar disposition of the mountains around the gulph, which, standing on either side the bay's entrance like two great portals, sweep away and enclose in a semicircular wall the town, the maritime plain, and the inland expanse of the bay itself. The land breeze, on the other hand, blows frequently in the night time, and is a dry shrivelling wind. It further resembles the *bise* of Southern France by the quarter, the north, from which it blows.

Abundance of ice in summer.

Whilst on the subject of climate, we may take occasion to say that, though snow is never to be seen covering the tops of the mountains in the hot weather, it nevertheless can be preserved there in pits properly covered over and protected from the external air by layers of brushwood, &c. A large store of snow is compressed and hardened in these pits during the winter, and throughout the summer it is sold in Smyrna at a price which puts it within the reach of the poorest; 1 piastre per oke = $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., for 2*d.*

Medical Notes.

Prejudices against Smyrna unfounded.

Whatever prejudices may exist as to the healthiness of Smyrna, a residence in it for more than a twelvemonth enables us to speak of it as a place favourable to the preservation of the mental and bodily vigour of the European immigrant and his descendants, and as possessing an indigenous population as well conditioned as regards both longevity and physical development as any other town of equal size. It cannot be said that any one season of the year is especially unhealthy, nor that this country is obnoxious to the influences of special disease not to be found elsewhere in the Levant.

The plague now not existing anywhere.

The plague has not made its appearance here since the year 1836–1837, and it is believed not to exist at present in any part of the world. It may not unreasonably be hoped that this fearful scourge will never again be met with; for in all the cases of its visitation it seems to have pursued the course of those specific poisons which propagate themselves by contact, which spread rapidly under favourable conditions, but which are not generated sporadically by malaria, miasma, nor decomposing organisms; which, in one word, are incapable of spontaneous generation. There is no doubt in our minds that this disease, when devastating this part of the world, spread itself from person to person by corporeal contact only, and not by any gaseous exhalation from sources of infection. For,—

Contagious at Smyrna not infectious.

(i.) Those Europeans who shut themselves up in their own houses, and maintained a strict quarantine, invariably escaped the pest. And we have been told that during the whole visitation of 1836 and 1837 only three Europeans fell victims to the plague,

(ii.) Those whose avocations led them to the town, which at that time was almost deserted, so long as they avoided actually touching a compromised person, even though they came within a few feet of a man dying of the disease, still enjoyed an entire immunity from it.

(iii.) The Turks and Jews who neglected all these precautions suffered out of all proportion more than the Franks. This is the more remarkable when we find that no such comparative immunity was enjoyed by the Franks in the several visitations of cholera.

(iv.) The oil-carriers, whose skins are thoroughly imbued with oil, and consequently less apt to imbibe poisons, were, though Turks, and as such fatalistically negligent, exempted from the disease. A similar observation has been made in Egypt as to the cases of soap-boilers and chimney-sweepers, whose exemption would be ascribed to the same causes as that of the oil-carriers. We may remark that the history given in books of the plague in Egypt differs in several particulars from the account we gathered on the spot of the plague in Smyrna.

(v.) Though we ourselves have had no experience of the disease, we are acquainted with many persons well competent to form an opinion on the matter, who, coming to this country with the prejudices of non-contagionists, have seen reason to adopt the opposite tenets, and to hold that, however impotent against other pests, quarantine regulations were of real use while such a disease as the plague existed.

It has been observed that the epidemics of plague in Smyrna always ceased before a certain day in June, thus illustrating the general law (to which, however, exceptions are to be found) that a sustained temperature of a certain height is incompatible with the existence of diseases communicable from person to person.

Continued fever.

Typhus is not indigenous in Smyrna. It was unknown to the resident practitioners until imported hither from the Crimea, and when imported it did not spread beyond the walls of the British hospital. We have, however, seen reason to believe that that peculiar form of typhus fever which is called "typhoid," and is common in England, commoner in France, and commonest perhaps of all fevers in camps, may be generated here under an accumulation of conditions favourable to its birth.

Typhoid not typhus.

These conditions are those furnished by decomposing animal matters, especially night soil; and, in this part of the world, are occasionally coupled with and intensified by malarious or terrestrial influences. We do not hold this form of fever to be as easily communicable from person to person as its twin brother typhus is, and it contrasts with the same disease by its tendency to assume something of a remittent type, by its longer duration, by a peculiar rash, and by its superinducing special local lesion. It lasts as a fever for three weeks, that is to say, while on the one hand it is rare to observe any decided amelioration before that time has elapsed, on the other it is not uncommon to observe cases in which the patient sinks under the influence of the fever as opposed to the influence of its complications, even in the very last days of that space of time. And standing distinct in this particular from typhus, it is easily distinguishable in the

same point of view from the other form of continued fever met with in this country, which is known as the bilious or the Mediterranean fever, and which often runs a fatal course within the short space of from four to five days. Of this form of fever as, though not remittent in form, yet arising from malarious influences, we shall treat of under that head. A large per-centage of the deaths which occurred among the soldiers of the British Swiss Legion, whilst stationed at Smyrna, was due to "typhoid fever." This fever principally affected men of the battalion which came out in the steam transport "Ripon," which had been for a considerable time employed, without intermission, as a troop ship, and which was, whatever the attention paid to cleanliness, somewhat overcrowded.

Small pox, &c. The exanthems, small pox, measles, and scarlet fever, are to be met with in Smyrna. Their character is, generally speaking, milder than that they bear in England.

An epidemic of small pox has occurred this winter in Smyrna, the wide spread of which would lead one to infer that vaccination, though pretty general, had not been so extensively carried out as it ought to have been. No great mortality, however, was caused by the disease amongst the inhabitants of Smyrna; we were told that three only had died in the Greek hospital, which is the largest in the town, and which had had a very large number of admissions. Out of the many cases of small pox which occurred among the soldiers of the British Swiss Legion, only one death took place.

Malarious diseases. The diseases peculiar to this country are dependent upon malarious influences, and are not communicable from person to person. They vary in intensity from the intermittent up to that form of bilious fever which resembles the yellow fever of the West Indies in some points, and wears an entirely continued form.

Locality. Places especially amenable to the influence of malaria are found to be the beds of streams, ravines, and situations exposed to land, and covered from sea breezes. But the most malarious of all localities are those where the sea has retired from the coast, and left in the place of shallow water a block of flat marshy

land interposed between itself and a mountainous background. Such conditions are found to exist at Ephesus, where it is said that no European can sleep without contracting a fever; at Mersina, the seaport of Tarsus, and Alexandretta, the seaport of Aleppo, whose reputation is, and deservedly, much worse than even that of Ephesus. By comparing the histories of the endemics in these three places, Ephesus, Mersina, and Alexandretta (Scanderoon), we shall be able to show that the one effective condition for the generation of malarious fever—is not abundant vegetation, is not heat, is not marshy soil, nor any one season of the year, but *marshy ground in the process of desiccation under the influence of solar heat.* At Ephesus, the worst season of the year is the spring and autumn; at Mersina and Alexandretta, the months of July and August. At these two latter places, no one who can possibly avoid it, remains in the town for these two months, but retires, either inland to the mountains, or crosses to the island of Cyprus. This comparison eliminates from our consideration the condition of the season of the year; and mere heat, Ephesus being as hot in July and August as either of the two others, and the condition of vegetation are likewise put out of the consideration, Ephesus being remarkably destitute of vegetation, and the other two places remarkably rich in it. Mersina and Alexandretta, being under the snow-clad Taurus, have till the very middle of summer a plentiful supply of water from the thawing of the snow; towards the end of May 1856, May 22–23, we found the streams in those localities to possess the strength, volume, and muddiness of the Alpine torrent; Ephesus, on the other hand, has no such store of moisture to have recourse to, as her stock of winter and early spring rain evaporates under the rays of the returning sun, and, in consequence, she becomes unhealthy earlier in the year than they do. These three places, then, are differently conditioned, at the time of their producing one common effect, as to vegetation, season of the year, and temperature; and the one condition common to all three is the existence in them of *marshy ground nearly or quite exhausted of its*

Efficient cause.

Why is the unhealthy season later in one place than another.

moisture by solar heat. The following story will serve to illustrate our meaning:—

At Tripoli in Syria, May 24th, 1856, we were cautioned by the Consul of a considerable European State, to avoid the mulberries which were just then ripening. His reason was not that they caused diarrhœa, or any other such disease, but that they produced the pernicious fever, and that the experience of every inhabitant showed that they did so at that time of the year. Logically viewed, this was an instance of that commonest of fallacies, "Post hoc, ergo propter hoc;" scientifically interpreted, the popular saying contains, as most popular sayings do, a certain amount of truth, and should be thus read. The sun has just got power enough to ripen the mulberries; the marshy ground will be now just on the point of complete drying, and malaria, consequently, just in the prime of its strength.

Parts of Smyrna unhealthy.

The part of Smyrna which is especially liable to malarious disease is that part which lies between "The Point" and the Caravan Bridge at the Northern Mount Pagus, which forms, in fact, the base of the triangle made up by the town, and comprehends the two regions known as San Demetri and San Catherina.

Geography, pp. 9 and 10.

San Demetri and San Catherina are unhealthy.

This we might have been led to expect, as this part of Smyrna lies lower than any other, and is occasionally covered with water for a considerable extent of its surface, which is subsequently dried up by the sun's rays. The valley, however, through which the Meles flows as it winds under Mount Pagus, and before it reaches the Caravan Bridge, is more unhealthy than any part of Smyrna. There are only a few houses scattered here and there along its banks in this part of its course, and a residence in one of them, either in the spring or autumn, is nearly certain to superinduce an attack of fever.

So St. Anne.

The men whose business it is to tend the leech ponds in this, the valley of St. Anne, are almost all of them obliged to be constantly on the spot day and night, and at all seasons of the year, to protect that valuable property from thieves, and they are in con-

sequence almost without an exception sufferers from country fever. The valley of St. Anne being a verdant and picturesque ravine, is at first sight as different as possible from such localities as Ephesus or Mersina, but a little consideration shows us that one common property exists in all these nests of malaria. The generalization made by the sufferers from ravine-bred fevers is, that fever and vegetation go together. This one is constantly told in such places. It admits of being explained in the same way as the equally empirical observation we have recorded as made to us at Tripoli. The Castle of Sanjac at the entrance of the bay is so thoroughly malarious, that the Turkish Government have found it necessary to leave its fine barracks wholly unoccupied. It is built on a bar of gravel which lies between the sea on one aspect, and the alternately advancing and retreating edge of a marsh on the other, and it is therefore constantly exposed to the full action of the products of desiccating marshy ground.

So Castle Sanjac. See page 14.

The times of the year at which the malarious fevers are most prevalent and powerful in Smyrna, are the end of the summer and the autumn; the spring fevers possess a milder character. Exposure in the open air during the hours of sleep to the land breeze which generally blows then, is a very common occasion for the development of the disease. People sleeping on a ground floor are observed to suffer from the fevers in a much greater ratio than those whose sleeping apartments are raised above the level of the ground. At Alexandretta, the inhabitants sleep in wooden cages elevated on poles to a height of from 10 to 12 feet above the earth.

Malarious times.

The badly nourished and clothed portion of the population suffer to a greater proportional extent from these as from most other diseases. In some of the guardhouses in the interior specimens of the most thorough malarious cachexia are to be found. The cavasses are wretchedly paid and fed, and at the same time are exposed in all seasons and in all localities. They bear every mark of confirmed anæmia and persistent imperfection in hæmatopoiesis. They have œdematous legs, cardiac murmurs, and that

Subjects of attack.

peculiar dead-leaf yellow stain in certain parts of the skin which is invariably associated with spleen disease.

i. *Intermittents.* The intermittents of this country are controllable by quinine even in their most intense form; but it is to be regretted that the great expense attending the use of this medicine in the large doses it is found necessary to give in malarious disorders, makes the poor, who need it most, least able to avail themselves of it. A decoction of olive leaves (℥ij to *O*ij of water, to be boiled down to *O*j), has been found to possess febrifuge properties of a certain value, and this remedy is in Asia Minor within reach of the poorest. All the vegetable bitters possess a certain efficacy in diseases of this class; even centaury and cascarilla have been employed with some advantage in such cases. But it is by virtue of a certain chemical principle which it contains, the alkaloid quina, that the cinchona bark exercises its special control over malarious disorders, and of this the other vegetable bitters are destitute, and are, in consequence, to be regarded, not in the *Remedies.* light of specifics, but merely in that of palliatives to the disease, and adjuvants to the vis medicatrix naturæ. It has been supposed, or perhaps we should rather say, it has been hoped, that a chemical substance analogous to quinine may be discovered in the leaves and bark of the olive tree, but as yet no decisive evidence has been brought forward on this point. The doses in which quinine is given by the practitioners of the country are gr. iv. gr. vi. every hour for four or five hours, or occasionally in ℈j. doses. They have informed us that they do not give quinine until they see a well-marked intermission, and that they are confident of the wisdom of their practice in giving such large quantities of the remedy from repeated experience of the utter inefficiency of smaller doses.

Pernicious fever. There is one variety of intermittent sometimes seen as an epidemic, especially after the rains of autumn, but also to be met with in the spring and summer, which bears the name of pernicious fever. In it there are three several accesses, the first and second com-

paratively mild, but the third of such intensity as frequently to cause death either in the cold or hot stage of the fit. If, however, the patient be got under the influence of quinine while in the intermissions, we are told that he generally escapes with his life.

ii. *Remittents.*

The remittent is produced by the same causes which produce the intermitent when operating less, or a continued fever when operating more forcibly, and standing midway between the two, they both not unfrequently verge into it. Persons of all ages are liable to its attacks, but whilst middle aged persons are most liable, it is observed here, as also elsewhere, that infantile ailments are very prone to take on a remittent type. The several races living together in Smyrna are found to suffer from it in the same proportion, and the rich only suffer less from its influence than the poor in so far as they are less exposed within its sphere of action. Cases of remittent fever occur at all periods of the year, but are most common in the spring and autumn. We are informed by the resident medical practitioners that they do not employ quinine to combat this form of fever when existing in full vigour as such, and in this point our own views are in complete accordance with theirs.

Remedies.

The line of treatment which we think to be at once justifiable on rational grounds, and confirmed as beneficial by actual experience, is the following:—The general inflammatory symptoms and the special local determinations are to be combated by depletory or evacuatory measures, and when this object is attained, and an alleviation of the symptoms amounting to an intermission observed, then we may make use of quinine to neutralize the special malarious poison which has produced the evil. But quinine is worse than useless until the constitutional disturbance and the local determinations met with in the remittent fever have been reduced to comparative tranquillity. We have reason to think that the condition of the nerve centres in the early stages of the remittent is such as to contra-indicate the use of quinine, even were the absorbing surface of the bowels in a fit state for taking up that medicine into the system. An intermittent fever is not generally complicated with special local

lesion until the disease is of some standing, but in the remittent fever, where a much larger quantity of malarious poison may be supposed to be working within the system, complications of one kind or another are generally to be met with early in the course of the disease. Of these the most common is liver congestion and jaundice, and the Mediterranean remittent has, in consequence, got the name of "bilious remittent." The irritability of stomach so often to be met with in this fever points to a similar condition of that organ also. The more serious cases of remittent fever are prone to assume a continued form, especially those which are complicated with jaundice. Cases of this kind are sometimes called by the same name as the more virulent and more widely diffused fever of the West Indies, and it is the absence (which is not universal) of the black vomit and other results of hæmorrhagic action in a system where the blood is disorganized which principally distinguishes the yellow fever of the Mediterranean from that of the New World. The greatest number of cases of this kind which have occurred in one year in Smyrna is sixty, and in this point, that of the number of its victims, it contrasts strongly with its namesake.

Complications.

Continued fever of malarious origin.

Called yellow fever, but not identical.

It occurs in the autumn, and seems to be produced by malarious influences, exasperated into peculiar malignancy by heat and other external conditions, and favoured by the previous operation of debilitating causes upon the subject they attack. Some of the resident medical practitioners hold this form of fever to be identical with the yellow fever of America, and to have been imported hither in American ships. They support their position by the assertion that this particular form of fever was unknown here till within the last thirty years, since which period the American trade has come into being here; we doubt alike premises and conclusion.

i. *Liability to dysentery after fever.*

There are two points of interest to be remarked upon as to the period of convalescence from these diseases. On recovery from any one of these several species of malarious fever, the patient is especially liable to attacks of dysentery, to which his imprudent indulgence of the calls of an appetite the more

vigorous after a lengthened period of dormancy often contributes not a little.

ii. *Herpes labialis.*

It is often remarked that an eruption breaks out round the lips (herpes labialis) of a patient who has just recovered from a malarious fever. This phenomenon is observed at the close of other than malarious disorders, but never after typhus or any other fever than those of malarious origin.

Abuse of quinine.

We may here remark that we have observed a tendency, not only in the practitioners who may be permanently resident in a malarious country, but also in those who may be temporarily stationed in such districts, to make use of quinine as if it were a panacea, and a remedy which may be safely employed in cases whose exact nature is for the moment obscure; as if all disease occurring in a malarious country owned invariably a malarious origin. And besides the evil produced by the indiscriminate use of the drug, we would also notice the mischief which his faith in a specific often brings about, by causing the practitioner to be neglectful as to the carrying out of two most important indications, viz., strictness in diet and removal from the malarious locality.

Drunkards escape malarious fever.

Lastly, it is a matter of vulgar remark here, as in most other countries, that the habitual drunkard, whatever other diseases he may bring upon himself, at all events escapes malarious fevers, even in spots the most notorious for the constancy and virulence of their pernicious influence.

Lung diseases.

It is the popular belief that the regions of the Mediterranean enjoy an almost total immunity from lung diseases; and that it is much to the advantage of a phthisical subject from Northern Europe to change his residence for one in the sunny countries bordering this sea. The first of these propositions is the exact converse of the truth, and the same remark may be made with but a slight modification of the second.

i. *The Mediterranean not beneficial generally for consumptive patients.*

To deal with the latter of the two propositions first. Some patients in whom consumption has been detected, while yet in an early stage, may have received benefit from a sojourn in the Mediterranean countries, because, by such a course, they have secured to themselves the co-operation of the three

most powerful coadjutors which nature can have in her efforts at restoration,—constant change of air, constant diversion by change of scene, and freedom from mental anxiety. On the other hand, we have on several occasions found that "the summer heats," as it was once expressed to us at Smyrna, "drive on phthisis furiously;" and it is our invariable experience that regulation of the patient's diet, which is to a considerable extent efficient elsewhere towards checking the disease, at all events in its outset, is carried out with greater difficulty and subject to more frequent interruption from a variety of causes here than in England. To the scientific and statistical world this has been long known, and therefore needs no further comment; but the real merits of the former of the two propositions have not been so clearly set forth as those of the latter.

ii. *Phthisis common in natives.*

It is true there are no trades in the Levant at all analogous in their effects upon the pulmonary system to those which in England produce the grinder's rot or the stonecutter's asthma.

But the statistics given in books, written by men with many years' experience of the East,—such as "Die Krankheiten des Orients," by Dr. Pruner,—agree with our limited observations in stating that the proportion of consumptive disease is as large among the indigenous population of this as of any part of the world. We have met with several cases in which the power this mysterious diathesis has of tainting a whole generation has been as well illustrated in Smyrna as it could have been by a family brought up in hardship and privation, cold, damp, and hunger, by parents themselves affected with the complaint, either in France or England. A single family has furnished us with examples of pulmonary phthisis in one brother, strumous ophthalmia in another, scrofulous cervical glands in one sister, and tabes mesenterica in another. Scrofulous diseases in the bones is likewise very common amongst the natives of this region. We may remark that a very short experience of the diseases of the East is sufficient to show that there at all events consumption and ague may co-exist at one time in the same individual. It is a noteworthy fact

that scrofula is especially common amongst the Armenian Roman Catholics, who are a small body of people, and intermarry much among themselves. The Jews, who live poorly, likewise suffer considerably from this class of diseases.

Pneumonia and pleurisy.

Pneumonia and pleurisy are neither of them uncommon, yet the climate of Smyrna is not so well calculated to produce these affections as many other places in the Mediterranean which enjoy most undeservedly a much higher reputation for salubrity.

The invalid in Smyrna is not exposed to those sudden transitions from excessive heat to excessive cold which are so common in other places, where, leaving the blazing heat of an open promenade, you may turn all at once to meet an icy blast rushing down from some snow-capped mountain.

Cancer.

Cancer is an exceedingly rare disease in this part of the world.

Heart disease.

Diseases of the heart are not uncommon; and we have met with many cases of functional disturbance of the organ in a certain class of Turkish officials, who are in a daily habit of over exciting themselves with raki.

Dyspepsia.

Dyspepsia is a common affection both amongst the Turkish and Jewish populations. Both are much given to the use, or rather the abuse, of sweetmeats and oil, to the exclusion often of almost every other article of food. And in certain Greek monasteries, where animal food is not allowed to be eaten, almost every inmate will have a series of dyspeptic symptoms to relate to any passing traveller whom he may suppose to be a physician.

Bowel complaints.

Bowel complaints are not so common as might be expected, considering that for three months in the year fruit of one kind or another is very largely consumed by all classes.

Cholera.

The cholera in its visitation favoured no class or nationality more than another, and in no respect, so far as we could learn from report, very few cases indeed having occurred during the year 1855–1856, the period of our residence in Smyrna, did this disease assume a different character from that which it has manifested elsewhere.

The stress of the Mediterranean remittent falls occasionally upon the stomach, and under these circumstances it assumes the name of gastric fever. It lasts often from fourteen to twenty-one days.

Diarrhœa. The diarrhœa to which Europeans are so frequently subject on their first arrival in the east is produced in different cases by different causes, and requires different treatment.

(i.) It may arise from a congested state of the portal system, and in this case it will yield to the influence of mild mercurials, followed by gentle purgatives.

(ii.) It may arise from a relaxed state of the mucous membrane of the intestines, which should be remedied either by desiccating remedies, such as the aromatic chalk mixtures, &c., or in severer cases by astringents, such as are tannin, catechu, or the ferri carbonas saccharata.

(iii.) It does arise more frequently perhaps than from all the other causes combined, from the irritation produced by the retention in the intestines of fæcal matter, which is due to the comparative atony often supervening in a hot season, and which is almost invariably removed by castor oil and opium.

Diarrhœa may be due to tubercular, dysenteric, or malarious disease, but without taking these varieties into consideration, since they are to be appropriately treated by reference to the special disease of which they are but a part, it will be obvious that the diarrhœa of congestion, of relaxation, and of irritation, are three entirely different diseases in their origin and in their therapeutics, and that the remedies for the one kind will, if applied in a case of either of the others, tend only to aggravate the evil.

The reason why removal from one climate to another is so generally productive of diarrhœa may be in great measure, that under such circumstances the relations previously existing between the functions of the skin and the intestinal mucous membrane are disturbed, and the disease is the consequence of the loss of equilibrium. This principle is closely connected with the rationale of a great part of the successful treatment of dysentery.

Circumcision does not appear to have conferred upon those who have submitted to that rite any immunity from the liability to contract syphilitic disease, which, though not so rife as in Egypt, is yet far from uncommon in Anatolia. *Syphilis.*

Uterine diseases are common, and especially among the Jewish population, but amenorrhœa, dysmenorrhœa, and menorrhagia are widely diffused amongst all the nationalities. *Uterine.*

Eye diseases of every variety are to be met with in Smyrna. The effects of two forms of ophthalmic affections strike the attention even of the passing and unprofessional observer by their frequency; entropium, ectropium, and trichiasis, the sequelæ of neglected ophthalmia, and the almost equally obvious products of old strumous eye disease. Diseases of the lachrymal sac are also common here. *Eye.*

Each nationality in Smyrna has provided itself with its own hospital. The Turkish hospital (Hôpital de la Ville) is capable of accommodating from 90 to 100 patients. It was employed in 1855 as a barrack for Turkish soldiers; subsequently it was given over to the English medical staff as quarters; and, lastly, it was again employed as an hospital for the British Swiss Legion, when that force occupied as barracks the building which had previously been the British General Hospital. *Hospitals. Turkish.*

Besides this building, the Turks have a military hospital, containing sixty beds, somewhat too closely packed, and a quarantine establishment, capable of accommodating a very much larger number of men. Quarters for from 300 to 400 British soldiers were found there at different periods in 1855 and 1856.

The Greeks have a large building which goes by the name of the Greek Hospital. But besides 150 beds for cases of disease, this institution provides accommodation of one kind or another for about 100 lunatics and idiots, as well as for a small number of aged and helpless individuals of both sexes. *Greek.*

On the several occasions of our visiting this institution, we found always three beds where two should have barely been allowed, and we never saw any attempt made at isolating infectious diseases. This

was the case even in an epidemic of small-pox in the winter of 1855 and 1856, which of course propagated itself to all within its reach who were capable of receiving it. We were assured, however, that the mortality from beginning to end from this epidemic had been very slight, and only amounted to three deaths. We observed that the old-fashioned practice of smearing the face with blue ointment was still continued in the case of small-pox patients. The pharmacopœia employed, and the language used for prescriptions, was, though in a Greek hospital, Italian.

The parts of the building devoted to the reception of cases of mental disease are a disgrace to a civilized community, and it is as disgusting to remember as it is useless to describe their condition.

The poor-house part of the institution is in a more tolerable state, but leaves much to desire in the way of cleanliness and increased accommodation.

The expenditure of the whole institution amounts to 3,000*l.* per annum; of this 600*l.* is annually defrayed from the endowments it possesses, and the deficiency is contributed from the common fund of the Γραικικὴ Κοινότης. To the institution are attached one surgeon and one physician, and one resident medical officer. The patients with mental diseases are only occasionally inspected. The others are visited daily at 8 A.M.

See p. 36.

Armenian Hospital.

The Armenian Hospital partakes rather of the character of a poor-house or refuge for the aged and destitute than of that of a hospital properly so called. As might have been expected from the comparatively small numbers and easy circumstances of that mercantile community, this institution was very nearly empty when we visited it. It had from 20 to 30 inmates, but could accommodate from 100 to 120.

Jewish.

The Jewish hospital is a quadrangular one-storied building; its rooms are mere cabins opening into a corridor; they have wooden floors, but are totally destitute of every other means and appliance; they have no beds and hardly any utensils for any purpose. The patient lies in his own rugs on a mat upon the floor, frequently without even a water bottle, with or without companions as it may chance. The same

description will apply to the two Turkish hospitals at Magnesia, both that for insane and that for sick patients.

The English, Dutch, and French hospitals, are each supported by their several governments, and are devoted to the reception of the subjects of the Power, who are generally sailors from the ships which have arrived in the port.

Commerce.

Advantages of the Port.

It is to the excellence of her port that Smyrna owes her repeated recovery from disasters which were sufficient to destroy for ever many of her neighbours not so advantageously situated. There is deep water along the whole length of the city, and ships can anchor close to the quays and custom houses. Unlike Alexandria and most of the other Levantine harbours, the harbour of Smyrna is secure from sudden squalls, and is of such extent that almost any conceivable number of vessels may lie in it at one time and in perfect safety. And secondly, it is the most convenient "scala" or shipping port for the three great valleys of the Hermus (Magnesia), the Cayster (Ephesus), and Mæander (Aidin), and is connected by camel roads with all the principal towns of the whole continent. Doubly favoured thus in its geographical condition, Smyrna has been enabled to flourish, in spite of bad governments and desolating wars, and is and will in all likelihood continue an important centre for exportation. No ships, however, are built at Smyrna, and her harbour does not possess a single dock of any description, though such a convenience might, from the nature of the shore, be provided at a comparatively trifling cost.

Tax on Exports.

Every article of export, whether of raw produce, of which nature the great mass of export is, or manufactured goods, as silk or carpets, pays duty to the enormous extent of 22 per cent. This monstrous and impolitic tax is thus raised,—10 per cent. is paid as excise by all produce on the spot where it is pro-

duced; 9 per cent. further is paid on all goods on their being deposited in the custom house, and 3 per cent. more on being shipped.

On Imports. The country whose exports can bear up against such taxation as this must possess great facilities for production. The taxes borne by imports are, however, much more moderate, and amount in all only to 5 per cent., 3 of which is paid by the custom house and 2 by the retailer, and there are no differential duties.

Catalogue raisonnée. By reference to the résumé of exports and imports (on the next page) for 1855, it will be seen that England both exports and imports more than any other country; that Austria, and the German and Swiss States, come next to her in these points, as also in the number and tonnage of their shipping at this port; that, not considering the Turkish ports, France and the United States come next; and, fifth in rank, Holland, whose commerce here is but the shadow of what it was.

Figs. Figs are exported in larger quantity for America than for English consumption, but those intended for the English market are of a finer quality. A considerable quantity of the figs intended for America are shipped on board the Liverpool line of steamers for England, and are subsequently transhipped at that port. The certainty and expedition of this route to America has begun to cause a diminution in the number of clippers employed in the fruit trade between America and Asia Minor.

Opium. Opium was exported to America in a somewhat larger quantity than to England, 278 cases, value 3,000,010 piastres, having gone to America, 267 cases, value 2,882,265 piastres, having gone to England. A considerable quantity of opium is exported to China and the East Indies by the overland route; in the year 1854 as much as 724 cases.

Carpets. England takes more than two-thirds of the carpets manufactured in Anatolia. These carpets are made in the interior, and by the aid of very simple machinery, manual labour entering largely into the means employed. Women and children work the carpets; the dyeing is done by men. Orders are

Commerce of Smyrna for the Year 1855.

The million of piastres = 8,000*l.*
The pound sterling = 129 to 130 piastres.

	Piastres.
In the year 1855 goods were imported into Smyrna of the value of - - -	257,004,700
In the same year goods were exported from Smyrna of the value of - - -	284,957,026
The whole value of exports and imports -	541,058,726

	Piastres.	Piastres.	
The imports were from—			Exports to—
England - - in value	80,105,328	83,447,620	England.
Austria, Germany. Switzerland - „	55,654,130	26,990,440	Austria, Germany, Switzerland.
France - - „	31,912,790	26,430,750	France.
United States - „	19,434,550	24,895,520	United States
Holland - - „	10,520,140	2,604,780	Holland.
Piedmont - - „	999,550	2,888,350	Piedmont.
Tuscany - - „	2,406,260	767,700	Tuscany.
Malta - - „	1,903,120	4,960,980	Malta.
Different places - „	5,448,140	8,636,660	Different places.
Turkish ports - „	48,617,800	105,330,120	Turkish ports.
Total imports - -	257,004,700	284,057,020	Total exports.

The English imports were coals, linen, iron, indigo, stuffs, hardware, other goods as manufactured hemp.

French.—Coffee, fezes, hats, nails, woollens, watches, precious stones, wrought hides, warm stuffs, paper, salted fish, hardware, silks.

Austrian.—Woodware, coffee, hemp, woollens, warm stuffs from Switzerland, paper, hardware.

United States.—Woven goods, coffee, flour, salted fish, hardware, rum, brandy, sugar, tobacco.

The goods exported from Smyrna were figs, raisins, madder, valonea, galls, gums, opium, hides, leeches, silk, and carpets.

From the more detailed tables given in the Appendix for the commerce of the year 1854, we extract this list :— Details from Appendix, pp. 89.

1854.	Piastres.	Piastres.	
Export of—			
Madder - total value	18,497,970	18,133,270	= value to England alone
Valonea - „	17,512,270	15,300,850	„ „
Figs - „	13,225,100	5,421,800	„ „
Raisins - „	17,943,350	5,330,000	„ „
Opium - „	13,271,510	2,882,265	„ „
Sponges - „	4,313,500	3,436,000	„ „
Carpets - „	3,844,600	2,300,000	„ „
Sorted gums „	3,139,700	1,093,500	„ „

The articles in this list are the principal articles of export to England. It will be observed, that nearly the whole of the madder and valonea exported went to England alone. The picking, sorting, and packing of these two articles of trade occupies a large number of hands in Smyrna.

given by an agent, and it is generally necessary for him, on account of the poverty of the workers, to advance a considerable sum of money to enable them to purchase materials. As much as two-thirds of the entire value of the carpet is thus advanced, sometimes, previous to its completion. In some of the villages where this branch of industry is carried on the work-people can make carpets of one pattern only, but there are other villages in which numerous patterns are worked. As regards the dyeing of the carpet, the red colour in the Turkey carpet is generally, and ought to be always, produced by madder. Logwood is also employed, and cochineal, but where the latter dye is made use of the colour of the carpet is apt to fade. Blue comes from the indigo, and the yellow from the yellow Persian berries. By a reference to the tables of exports it will be seen that carpets, silk, paper, and spun cotton are the only manufactured articles the list contains; and though the silk manufactures cannot be said to be in a declining condition, the carpet manufacture is the only one which has made some advances within the last few years. At the present time the carpet manufacture of Anatolia is competing successfully with that of Persia.

Silk. Much of the silk exported from Smyrna is brought from Brusa and other places, at a distance of some days' journey into the interior; but much has been within the last few years manufactured in Smyrna itself, in an extensive establishment, said, indeed, to be one of the largest of the kind in the world, the result of the enterprise of a French merchant of Lyons.

Corn Trade. In the year 1854 the value of the corn exported to European and Turkish ports was as much in value as 4,563,850 piastres; and nearly half as much as this quantity was consumed in the making of biscuit for the allied armies. Barley to the value of 162,050 piastres was exported to England alone within the same year. Owing to these circumstances the price of provisions rose 60 per 100 as compared with the average prices of the preceding years. Considerable quantities of corn were shipped for England in the early part of the year 1855, but towards the end of

the summer of that year, the exportation of corn was prohibited, save to Turkish ports; and this branch of trade, in consequence, fell into abeyance until the proclamation of peace, since which time it has again been resumed. The French Government had a biscuit bakery constantly at work in Smyrna so long as the war lasted.

Fur Trade.

We may remark, that though the export of hares', foxes', goats', and lambs' skins is considerable from this port, none of the finer furs are native to the country, and that most of the fur which is so largely worn by the Orientals as to be almost a distinctive article of their dress, is imported from America.

Coffee.

The history of coffee here is an analogous one. It is universally drunk by the poorest Anatolian, often almost to the exclusion of any other beverage. It is yet an exotic; consumed in the wildest and remotest districts of Asia Minor, it is produced in the West Indies.

Olive oil.

The total amount of olive oil exported from a country most favourable to the growth, and covered with multitudes of the trees, was, in 1854, only 1,718 quintals, value 452,600 piastres; of this none went either to England or France. The latter country, indeed, imports oil into Asia Minor for culinary purposes, the exotic product, by a most complete inversion of the natural order of things, thus superseding the native in its own country. The difficulties of the transport affect injuriously the quality of the oil, by necessitating the salting of the olive, and thus introducing impurities into the oil. Enterprise would find a field in this as well as in the opium and grape and wine trades of this country.

Drugs.

Note de Drogues du Levant.

	PIASTRES.
Opium, 1re qualité, un morceau	- } 200
„ 2nde „ „	- }
„ 3me „ „	- }
Salep, 1re „ „	- } 15
„ 2nde „ „	- }
Carried forward	- 215

	PIASTRES.	
Brought forward -	215	
Mastic - - - - -	95	
Lotor - - - - -		
Amadou - - - - -		
Grains Jaunes - - - -		
Radix Saponaria - - - -	40	
Thus Encens, Egypt. - - -		
Latron Soda - - - -		
Gomme Sandraque (Caramanie) -		
Gomme Adraganth (sic) en feuilles, 1re qualité - - - -		
Idem, 2nde qualité - - -	34	
Idem, naturelle, non travaillée -		
Galle, noir - - - - -		
„ vert - - - - -	10	
„ blanche - - - -		
	394	= 108 piastres.
Brokerage - - -	58.50	
	452.50	

We have here given a list of the drugs which were to be found in the drug market of Smyrna in the spring of 1856. We have given this list in the shape of the bill unaltered, as presented to us by the broker ("μεσίτης," "courtier") we employed, for large specimens of all these drugs, and for his own labour in purchasing them, as such a document may be of service to any one who wishes to make a similar collection on the same spot. This list is by no means co-extensive with the number of drugs to be found in the markets of Smyrna, still less with the multitude whose traditional commercial source is there. Having repeatedly surveyed the market, we directed no specimens to be taken of the drugs imported by sea, such as the sulphate of iron and the sal ammoniac from England, the senna from Egypt, or the gum benzoin, of such as the ruddle and other native products, which, though indigenous and plentiful, were of no pharmaceutical importance. We were not able to procure any specimens of the fœtid gum resins, ammoniacum, assafœtida, &c., which, though not produced in Anatolia, yet pass through it from Central Asia, scammony was scarce at that season of the year, and the liquid storax was not to be had in Smyrna.

There is no opium grown within several days' journey of Smyrna. It is incorrect, as we found by inquiry on the spot, to say that it is grown near Magnesia. We were assured when there that the opium country was a long way further inland, and the same answer was given to our inquiries when at Aidin, a whole day's journey further from Smyrna than Magnesia. Nor did we at either place observe any of the plants growing. The name of the place usually assigned as the source of opium by the dealers is Kara Hissar, which is also sometimes called "*Afium* Cara Hissar," or "Opium Cara Hissar." It is packed in hampers of matting, which again are packed within coarse haircloth, and it is thus transported on camels from the place of growth. Whatever adulterations it is subjected to, it undergoes previously to its arrival in Smyrna; when it arrives there it is unpacked in the presence of an authorized person, and the process of sorting commences. The opium is in cakelike masses, seldom weighing more than 2 lb.; each mass is enveloped in a dry leaf, and covered thickly with the adherent achænia of some species of dock. Lump after lump is handed to the assayer, whose process is more rough and empirical than any process in the world which is exercised on objects of such value. He seizes each lump as it is handed to him, and plunges a knife into its substance; then, according to the odour evolved, to the appearance of its fracture, to the presence or absence of cretaceous, gummy, or amylaceous impurities, he tosses the lump, after one instant's examination, into one or other of three heaps, the first, second, and third qualities. The same process is repeated upon the rest of the lumps, and from beginning to end the knife is never wiped; and thus the test of smell, the most valuable criterion furnished in the whole process, is rendered wholly nugatory. It is obvious that the decisions passed after such an examination as this must often be quite other than the value, *i.e.* the per-centage of morphia in each piece would warrant.

Opium.

How tested.

Scammony is produced in great quantities and in the immediate neighbourhood of Smyrna. It is obtained from the Convolvulus Scammonia, as it grows wild on

Scammony.

the hills, its root is cut off in a slanting direction, so that the juice gravitates as it exudes into a shell placed beneath to receive it. This drug was exported to England in 1854, to the extent in quantity of 2,495 okes, and in value of 776,500 piastres. We believe that at present the difference between pure virgin and unadulterated scammony is well known andappreciated in England. We have been told by an English merchant in Smyrna that, upon first commencing business there, he collected, as anyone easily might, two boxes of the gummy resinous exudation as pure as it could possibly be, *i.e.* with the admixture of no other impurities than those which might happen to attach to the gum in the course of exudation. These boxes he sent to one of the largest drug depôts in the United Kingdom, and they were then returned to him as not coming up to their standard of purity. He then added to the two cases of pure scammony an equal quantity of various other substances, other gums, as guiacum, chalk, sand, &c., the sweepings in fact of a druggist's shop; and he avers that his four cases of adulterated scammony were received as genuine by the very same persons who had rejected his two cases when free from all impurities. For the entire truth of this story we are not ready to vouch, but it is abundantly certain that nothing of even analogous import could happen at present.

Salep. Salep is little if at all imported into England at present; it has been superseded there by arrowroot, sago, and other such farinaceous articles in one direction, and by tea, coffee, &c. in another of the applications to which it was put. On the Continent it is still much used. In Smyrna itself there is a large consumption of it, and, when properly prepared, it is as palatable, nutritious, and unirritating as any article of the same class. Its use is not confined to the invalid, though it forms an admirable article of diet for many cases, and especially for those of bowel complaints, but it is also extensively used as an article of daily food. It is brought to Smyrna by camel caravans, and is said to be grown in the table land of Central Asia.

Gum mastic. Great use is made in the Levant of mastic, and it is much employed by the western dentist and varnisher.

It is the drug seen first and most frequently in the markets of Smyrna as it is produced in Chios, of which Smyrna is for a large portion of the year made practically the port, by the arrangements of the steam-packet companies. Chewing mastic is one of the methods by which the Turks of both sexes strive to escape from the ennui of bodily and mental inaction, and, by its property of becoming ductile and tenacious when masticated, this otherwise brittle and transparent gum is admirably fitted for the purpose. From time immemorial it has been used as a dinner pill in England, and it is the distinctive ingredient in the spirituous drink raki, so largely used and abused in Anatolia, which is euphemistically called "mastica."

Amadou.

Amadou, when steeped in nitre, is used as tinder, but the flint and steel is rapidly falling into disuse, being superseded, except in the opinion and employment of the caravan drivers, by the lucifer matches which are abundantly imported from Austria. The giant boletus, from which it is manufactured, is indigenous in the neighbourhood.

Lotor.

The Lotor, contained in the list, is a substance not unlike coarse canella, and it possesses strongly astringent properties. But we were unable to obtain in Smyrna any history of its origin or employment, and a high authority to whom we have had recourse in England was equally in the dark with ourselves.

Storax and saponaria and Grains. See p. 111.

Storax and Saponaria are exclusively sent to Austria. The Grains jaunes de Perse are to be found in the English market, but are exclusively employed as dyeing substances.

Leeches.

Leeches are reared in ponds just outside the town, and are brought thither in leather bags from the interior for the most part, though some are bred upon the spot. Considerable difficulties beset this species of enterprise, but we were informed by the owner, M. Moraitini, an intelligent and courteous Greek merchant under Austrian protection, that at length, by a constant attention to the changing and purity of the water in the several ponds, and to the supply of proper food, he had succeeded in making his speculation answer. The leech is exceedingly susceptible of cold, and it is necessary to provide a thick bedding of mosses and water weeds to cover the bottom of

the ponds into which it is put. France and Austria took more leeches than England, whose demand for this article, M. Moraitini informed us, had somewhat decreased of late. This fact may be explained by the feeling which now exists in England pretty generally, that too free a use has been and may be frequently made of this article of the Materia Medica. Leeches of a smaller size, and therefore lower price, were required for the English market than by his customers of other nations. They are sold on the spot by weight, 500 gr. the oke, 4*l.* for 2½ lb.

Orpiment. There is much orpiment to be found in the bazaars. It is said to come from Persia, and in combination with caustic lime it forms a depilatory powder much used by the Mussulman population.

There are three subjects in connexion with the exports of Anatolia which yet remain to be noticed. They are, the methods for conveyance of goods from the interior to the towns on the seaboard, the places for stowing away goods, and the shipping which carries them to foreign lands, *i.e.*, the roads, the khans and warehouses, and the commercial marine.

i. Roads. The Turkish empire cannot be said to possess any roads or ever to have made any, or even attempted to preserve such as it found ready to its hand. Its internal communications are—tracks formed by the passing traffic, uninterrupted where spared by the mountain torrent, impassable occasionally when this has not been the case, either covered with loose stones of all sizes and shapes, or consisting of deep and yielding sand. But it is not to be supposed that this has always been the case in a country once possessed by those greatest of road-makers, the Romans. In the very heart of the country, while toiling along a narrow, broken, and often dangerous path, it is not uncommon for the traveller to come upon a considerable stretch of broad stone-paved road, which, like the legible fragments here and there to be met with in a half destroyed manuscript, makes one feel the more bitterly the loss entailed upon us by the carelessness of man and the ravages of the elements. The roads of all mountainous countries are liable to be destroyed in places by the heavy and sudden downfalls of rain incidental

to such localities; but besides this cause, another has conspired even more effectually throughout Anatolia to effect the destruction of its roads, viz., the practice the Turk has of providing himself with hewn stone for his own private purposes from whatever source he can with least trouble to himself and regardless of all other considerations.

Camels.

The camel is the principal beast of burden employed in the transport of goods throughout Asia Minor. The use of mules, asses, and horses is, though not uncommon, yet much less widely diffused. Wheel carriages are entirely unknown, and with the roads in their present condition, they could not be made use of. It is not unusual to meet a string of as many as sixty or seventy camels all heavily laden; the whole procession under the care of two or three men, and preceded almost invariably, possibly to secure an equable rate of progress, by a boy on a donkey, holding in one hand his own bridle, and in the other the halter of the leading camel. Three miles an hour is the usual rate of the camel caravan. It is not common to see a camel without a load, even when in a caravan bound inland. The superstitious reverence which the Turk pays to some of the lower animals, as, *i. e.* the stork, has been interpreted by the passing observer as an exemplification of the character for kindness and humanity to the brute creation which writers have been pleased to attribute to that race. We have no hesitation in saying that the Turk is to his beast a hard and bad master, and that the unfortunate animal possessed by him suffers as much as one possessed by one of the lower orders in any other nation, not only from habitual neglect, but from sudden outbursts of brutality. It is a common thing to see a raw upon a camel's back of six inches in diameter, and other wounds elsewhere from the friction of girths, &c.; and, as might be expected, it is also exceedingly common to see a dead or dying camel lying by the roadside surrounded by dogs.

ii. Warehouses, and

The warehouses in which exports are stored previous to being shipped do not differ in any important particular from similar establishments elsewhere.

As buildings, they are generally long and lofty arcades, with small windows let in at a considerable height above the ground, and strong iron-plated doors, which are regularly locked and barred at sundown.

Khans. The khan, as being an institution peculiar to the east, and one possessing several points for commendation, deserves a more lengthy description. The architectural idea expressed in the khan seems, like several other typical forms of eastern architecture, to have been transplanted into European soil in the middle ages, and to have served as a model for collegiate buildings. Both classes of building are quadrangular, and both have one, or at most two points of entry capable of being closed by strong doors. The fountain in the centre, and the encircling corridor, go further to complete the resemblance, but the eastern building has seldom if ever more than two stories, and the corridor runs round the upper as well as the lower of them. All round each of the corridors are small rooms with very strong doors, small windows, and a raised dais to spread the travellers' carpets and other sleeping apparatus upon, and generally for the upper story lofty dome-shaped roofs, whose external appearance reminds one, strangely enough, of the manufactories in England where sublimation is carried on. The ground floor range is seldom employed as a sleeping place, though frequently as offices for the sale, and generally as depositories for the keeping of goods. Any traveller can enter this building, and on paying a trifling sum (45 piastres per month) can occupy one of these small and strong rooms, the key of which is handed over to him. From the moment of his entering the khan to the moment of his leaving it, his own expenses are within his own control, and he is as independent as if he were still in his own dwelling in the country. Coffee he can procure from the caféjee, who occupies a small room looking into the archway of the entrance, and analogous in position and other respects to the porter's lodge of the European college. Bread, meat, and charcoal for firing, he must purchase for himself without the walls, but stabling, straw, and barley for his beasts of burden are pro-

vided for them within the khan. Within the four walls of his room the merchant from the interior has his goods, if they are in small compass, placed with him, and all the functions of his public and private life alike will be carried on within the same area. If his goods are bulky, the lower story has generally ample room for stowage.

Khans used as offices.

Merchants resident in the towns often make use of the rooms in a khan as offices, whither they repair during the day for the transaction of business. The Persian merchants have an entire khan appropriated to their exclusive use, and their representative or consul has within its precincts a court for deciding all disputes that may arise between its occupants.

Khans used as shops.

Some of these buildings are occupied by resident artisans,—the poorer ones living entirely in the khans, the richer taking the room as a cheaply-rented shop. One khan is entirely occupied by shoemakers,—the aggregation of dealers in the same wares serving here as in the bazaars to keep all parties informed as to the passing value of any article for the time being, in default of any more refined method of attaining the same end.

iii. *Steamers.*

Lines of steamers of the three nations—Austria, France, and England—call regularly at Smyrna, and it is seldom that a less number than two or three steamers is to be seen in the harbour at any one time. Every merchant steamer carrying either the Austrian or the French flag which came into Smyrna during our sojourn there of more than a year was with the exception of an occasional French transport, either in the Austrian Lloyd or the Messageries Impériales Company. Both these companies are richly endowed by their respective governments, and the latter of the two has for some time carried the English mails, but, as a rule, their boats are ill-appointed and unpunctual, and they are small, brig-rigged, and propelled by paddles in the immense majority of cases. Each of these companies sends two boats to Smyrna every week—one from Constantinople and one from the West; and fortnightly each company has a line running to Alexandria, the boats of which call here also. Though these steam companies aim

French and Austrian.

especially at securing passenger traffic, they nevertheless afford considerable facilities for shipping cargo, and goods of all kinds are weekly exported and imported by their agency.

English. There are several lines of steam-ships between Smyrna and Liverpool, but no mail is carried by any of the English ships. These ships are all, without exception, propelled by the screw; the majority are barque and a few ship rigged. Their average tonnage is much larger than that of the other two lines, and they direct their attention to the securing of good freights rather than passengers, who, though well provided for in other respects, might be inconvenienced in these boats by the long stay which their waiting for cargo sometimes entails upon them in Smyrna and Alexandria. The Liverpool ships generally go to Constantinople first, and having discharged cargo there, they return to Smyrna. If they succeed in getting a full cargo there they return direct to England; but if not, they go round by Alexandria. Besides the English lines belonging to English houses, there is also, as already mentioned, a line of English steam-ships in the employ of a company of Greek and Armenian merchants. Though there is no regular line of steam communication between Smyrna and London, yet this means of intercourse between the two places does exist, and about once every month a steamer sails direct for London.

Sailing ships. This profuse supply of steam ships has begun to affect the interests of sailing vessels engaged in the Smyrna trade. A good average passage for a sailing vessel, when favoured by the wind, from England to Smyrna, may be estimated at thirty days; it is not unfrequently done in less time; and we have heard of an instance in which a ship arrived in Smyrna in twenty-one days after leaving Cardiff. But these are all voyages performed under favourable conditions, and these favourable conditions are very frequently wanting. The Liverpool steamers will, under the most unfavourable circumstances, reach Liverpool within seventeen days from the date of their leaving Smyrna. It is obvious that sailing vessels must compete with great disadvantage with these steamers, in all cases

where certainty and expedition are required; and in the fruit trade it is said that steam will at no distant period enjoy almost a monopoly in freights. The merchant in America finds it answer his purpose better in many cases to have his cargo of figs shipped in a steamer at Smyrna for Liverpool, and subsequently trans-shipped at the latter port, than to have them brought direct without any trans-shipment in a sailing ship from Smyrna to America. The same causes will operate still more powerfully upon the European fruit ships. In fact, the peculiarities of the Mediterranean navigation seem to require steam more than most other seas. The Mediterranean possesses no trade winds, and is, on the contrary, especially liable to sudden changes and dead calms. Schooners and brigs were the favourite class of vessels employed in the Smyrna fruit trade, but within the last few years a somewhat higher style of vessel has been introduced for this purpose.

English shipping.

The tonnage of English steamers which entered the port of Smyrna was:—

In 1854, 31,580. The number was 52.
In 1855, 46,868.

The tonnage of English sailing vessels which entered the port of Smyrna was:—

In 1854, 28,923. The number was 118.
In 1855, 28,611.

The commerce of Smyrna represented the sum in piastres:—

In 1854 of 136,191,140 piastres.
In 1855 of 257,001,700 piastres.

The increase in the commerce is accompanied by a proportionate increase in the tonnage of the principal carrying marine; and from the amount of tonnage that marine possesses in these parts, it will be seen that, though the "Levant Company" and "Smyrna Fleet" are now, as names, merely historical and of the past, the realities they represented are in as vigorous an existence as ever.

In conclusion, I must make full acknowledgments to J. W. Hulke, Esq., of King's College, and to Messrs. Wilkinson, Eddowes, and Atkinson, late my colleagues at Smyrna. They collected much information upon several of the subjects treated of in this report, and most liberally placed it at my disposal. Though they are not to be held responsible for any statement which this report may contain, they are well entitled to share in any credit which may accrue to it.

Lastly, it is due to myself to say, that I am as well acquainted as any one else can be with the numerous shortcomings and deficiencies of this report, and that, though some might, many also could not have been supplied by greater diligence on my part.

George Rolleston, M.B., M.A.,
Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, and late Assistant Physician to the British Civil Hospital at Smyrna.

APPENDIX.

Table of Exports from Smyrna for 1854.

				Piastres.
Madder Roots	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	72,623	Value, total	18,497,970
	Quantity, to England	„	71,225	Value to England	18,133,270
Almonds	Quantity, total	„	250	Value, total	114,980
Corn	Quantity, total	*Kilos*	94,301	Value, total	4,563,850
	Quantity, to England	„	23,290	Value, to U. K.	861,800
Bronze	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	77	Value, total	36,300
Rags	Quantity, total	„	36,230	Value, total	3,157,580
	Quantity to England	„	2,110	Value to England	145,700
Yellow Wax	Quantity, total	„	2,175	Value, total	1,998,820
Cocoons	Quantity, total	„	517	Value, total	1,118,600
Cottons, raw	Quantity, total	„	870	Value, total	219,340
Cottons, spun, Anatolia	Quantity, total	„	626	Value, total	268,650
Chromate of Iron	All for England, from Izmid	„	11,808	Value	416,400
Old Copper	Quantity, total	„	1,248	Value, total	685,908
Emery	Quantity, total	„	44,950	Value, total	2,257,250
	Quantity to England	„	38,360	Value to England	1,926,250
Sponges	Quantity, total	*Bags and Cases*	2,817	Value, total	4,318,400
	Quantity to England	„	1,715	Value to England	3,436,000
	Quantity, total	„	32,500	Value, total	552,600
Otto of Roses	Quantity to England	„	18,300	Value to England	290,000
	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	53,060	Value, total	13,225,100
Figs	Quantity to England	„	18,070	Value to England	5,421,000
Olive Oil	Quantity, total	„	1,718	Value, total	452,600
Dried Fruits	Quantity, total	„	2,223	Value, total	446,500
	Quantity to England	„	940	Value to England	235,000
	Quantity, total	„	10,131	Value, total	4,168,970
Galls	Quantity to England	„	1,571	Value to England	643,810
	Quantity, total	„	2,863	Value, total	3,139,700
Sorted Gums	Quantity to England	„	998	Value to England	1,093,500
Dried Vegetables	Quantity, total	*Kilos*	21,944	Value, total	627,520
Maize	Quantity, total	„	22,471	Value, total	573,010
	Quantity, total	„	6,395	Value, total	774,540
Nuts	Quantity to England	„	5,311	Value to England	677,510
	Quantity, total	*Cases*	1,538	Value, total	13,271,510
Opium	Quantity to England	„	267	Value to England	2,882,265
	Quantity, total	*Kilos*	162,050	Value, total	3,060,230
Barley	Quantity to England	„	52,450	Value to England	162,050
	Quantity, total	„	13,020	Value, total	186,370
Bones	Quantity to England	„	12,640	Value to England	177,860
Paper from Smyrna	Quantity, total	*Bales and Cases*	806	Value, total	843,700
Dry Ox Hides	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	3,738	Value, total	956,980
Lambs and Goats' Hides	Quantity, total	*Bales*	887	Value, total	1,015,500
	Quantity to England	„	830	Value to England	949,500
Dry Raisins — Red	Quantity, total	„	98,670	Value, total	9,464,250
	Quantity to England	„	41,060	Value, total	3,895,000
Dry Raisins — Black	Quantity, total	„	98,056	Value, total	4,906,000
	Quantity to England	„	8,900	Value to England	445,000
Dry Raisins — Sultanas	Quantity, total	„	13,014	Value, total	3,573,000
	Quantity to England	„	3,600	Value to England	990,000
Hare Skins	Quantity, total	*Bales*	383	Value, total	1,046,100
Radix Saponaria	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	137	Value, total	45,910
Salep	Quantity, total	„	137	Value, total	91,300
Leeches	Quantity, total	*Okes*	1,502	Value, total	1,384,150
	Quantity to England	„	5	Value to England	4,750
Scammony	Quantity, total	„	3,270	Value, total	997,050
	Quantity to England	„	2,495	Value to England	776,500
Silk	Quantity, total	*Quintals*	483	Value, total	2,806,700
Storax	Quantity, total	„	139	Value total	76,450
Carpets, Anatolia	Quantity, total	„	1,048	Value, total	3,844,600
	Quantity to England	„	596	Value to England	2,300,000
Valonea	Quantity, total	„	243,999	Value, total	17,512,270
	Quantity to England	„	218,674	Value to England	15,350,856
Box Wood	Quantity, total	„	26,826	Value, total	858,110
	Quantity to England	„	12,785	Value to England	436,350

Thermometrical Register.

		Degrees.	
March 6 -	5 P.M.	60	
March 7 -	7.15 A.M.	58	Forenoon sunny; wind and rain in afternoon, with thunder and lightning.
	12.45 P.M.	60	
	5.15 P.M.	60	
March 8 -	7.30 A.M.	59	Stormy, thunder and lightning, and rain till late.
	12.45 P.M.	60	
	5.45 P.M.	59	
March 9 -	7.30 A.M.	58	Lightning and thunder in morning; rain till afternoon; rain in night.
	12.30 P.M.	57	
March 10 -	2.45 P.M.	61	Fine day; no rain.
	5.30 P.M.	61	
March 11 -	7.30 A.M.	58½	Rain with gusts of wind in afternoon; thunder and rain at night, with much wind.
	6.45 P.M.	58½	
	9.15 P.M.	58½	
March 12 -	7.30 A.M.	59	Rain, much wind, and heavy sea.
	12	58½	
	5.15	59	
March 13 -	7.30 A.M.	59	Rain.
	12.45 P.M.	60	
	5.45 P.M.	59	
March 14 -	7.30 A.M.	58	Heavy rain in the night.
March 15 -	11. 0 P.M.	55	Heavy rain all day.
March 16 -	7.15 A.M.	55½	Forenoon sunny; afternoon one or two heavy showers.
	6. 0 P.M.	54	
March 17 -	7.20 A.M.	53½	Fine clear day.
	1.10 P.M.	55	
March 18 -	—	–	Fine day.
March 19 -	—	–	Fine day.
March 20 -	—	–	Fine day.
March 22 -	4.0 P.M.	58¼	Fine day.
March 23 -	8.0 A.M.	58	Fine weather.
	11.0 P.M.	61	
March 24 -	8.0 A.M.	60	The warmest day yet; fine all day.
	1.0 P.M.	64	
	10.0 P.M.	62	
March 25 -	8.0 A.M.	60½	Very hot; no rain for some days; sundown 6.0 P.M.
	2.30 P.M.	67¼	
	8.30 P.M.	65	
March 26 -	8.0 A.M.	63½	Hot; no rain; sirocco for last two days.
	11.0 A.M.	69	
	4.45 P.M.	70	
	8.30 P.M.	68	

		Degrees.	
March 27	8.0 A.M.	65	No rain ; hot.
March 28	11.30 A.M.	65	Hot ; no rain.
	4.35 P.M.	68½	
March 29	8.0 A.M.	40	Hot ; no wind ; no rain.
	12.30 P.M.	67	
	3.45 P.M.	68	
	9.30 P.M.	66	
March 30	6.45 A.M.	65	No wind nor rain.
	9.0 A.M.	65	
	10.30 A.M.	65½	
	6.0 P.M.	65	
	10.50 P.M.	64½	
March 31	9.0 A.M.	64¾	No wind, no rain.
	10.20 A.M.	63	
	1.10 P.M.	66	
	3.10 P.M.	66½	
	5.30 P.M.	66	
	8.20 P.M.	64	
April 1	8.0 A.M.	60½	No rain, cooling wind.
	11.30 A.M.	59	
	3.30 P.M.	60⅔	
	5.45 P.M.	68	
April 2	8.0 A.M.	60	No rain.
	11.0 A.M.	60½	
	3.10 P.M.	64¼	
	6.0 P.M.	64	
	10.25 P.M.	63¼	
April 3	6.30 A.M.	60	Cloudy morning ; rain in slight shower.
	7.55 A.M.	63	
	2.55 P.M.	64	
	7.30 P.M.	62½	
April 4	7.45 A.M.	62	No rain.
April 5	1.0 P.M.	64	
	6.0 P.M.	61	
	8.10 P.M.	61	
April 6	8.0 A.M.	61	
	11.15 A.M.	63	
	2.0 P.M.	64	
	6.0 P.M.	64½	
	8.30 P.M.	63½	
April 7	6.0 A.M.	63	
	7.15 A.M.	63	
	1.0 P.M.	66	
	6.0 P.M.	65	
April 8	7.0 A.M.	64½	Cloudy in morning ; rain in afternoon ; lightning and thunder and heavy rain at night.
	11.0 P.M.	63	

		Degrees.	
April 9	7.15 A.M.	63	Heavy rain and thunder, and intervals of sunshine.
	8.30 A.M.	61½	
	11.0 A.M.	63	
	12.45 P.M.	63½	
	3.45 P.M.	64	
	11.30 P.M.	61	
April 10	7.45 A.M.	62	Heavy rain and wind.
	12.30 P.M.	63	
	3.0 P.M.	63	
	6.15 P.M.	61½	
	8.30 P.M.	61	
April 11	6.30 A.M.	60½	Heavy rain.
April 12	9.30 A.M.	60½	Very heavy rain and wind.
	11.30 A.M.	60	
	2.30 P.M.	60	
	6.0 P.M.	58	
April 13	7.30 A.M.	57	Cloudy.
	12.30 P.M.	56½	
	5.0 P.M.	55½	
April 14	7.10 A.M.	57	Sunshine, gentle breeze.
	1.40 P.M.	60	
	4.30 P.M.	62½	
April 15	12.0	60½	Sunny.
	6.20 P.M.	62	
April 16	7.15 A.M.	58½	
	12.0	59	
	3.30 P.M.	60	
	9.40 P.M.	58	
April 17	7.30 A.M.	58	
	1.0 P.M.	59½	
	4.45 P.M.	60	
	10.15 P.M.	58	
April 18	8.0 A.M.	58½	
	12.0	59½	
	7.0 P.M.	59	
April 19	8.30 A.M.	58½	
	1.0 P.M.	60½	
	10.0 P.M.	58½	
April 20	6.45 A.M.	57½	
	12.0	59	
April 21	7.15 A.M.	57	
	12.0	59	
	7.0 P.M.	61	
	10.30 P.M.	60	
April 22	7.30 A.M.	59	
	2.0 P.M.	61½	
	7.0 P.M.	61½	
	10.0 P.M.	59½	

		Degrees.	
April 23	6.30 A.M.	59½	
	8.0 A.M.	60	
	1.20 P.M.	61½	
	9.15 P.M.	60½	
April 24	7.0 A.M.	59¾	
	9.0 A.M.	60½	
	10.45 A.M.	60	
	2.0 P.M.	61	
	6.30 P.M.	60½	
April 25	7.10 A.M.	61	
	10.30 A.M.	61	
	1.0 P.M.	62	
	3.40 P.M.	63	
April 26	7.30 A.M.	60	
	12.30 P.M.	61½	
	5.15 P.M.	62	
April 27	8.20 A.M.	61	
	11.15 A.M.	61	
	1.0 P.M.	61	
	6.45 P.M.	60⅔	
April 28	8.0 A.M.	60½	
	1.0 P.M.	59½	
	6.10 P.M.	60	
	11.0 P.M.	57	
April 29	7.45 A.M.	59	
	1.30 P.M.	60½	
April 30	9.0 A.M.	61	Hot, sunny.
	2.30 P.M.	62	
	11.0 P.M.	61	
May 1	8.20 A.M.	61½	Hot, sunny.
	1.15 P.M.	65½	
	11.30 P.M.	61	
May 2	8.0 A.M.	62	Cloudy and showery, rain and wind.
	1.30 P.M.	63	
	5.15 P.M.	63½	
	11.30 P.M.	63	
May 3	7.45 A.M.	63	Bright sunny day.
	12.35 P.M.	63½	
May 4	10.30 A.M.	64	Sunny clear day and moonlight night.
	7.0 P.M.	66	
	11.30 P.M.	65	
May 5	8.0 A.M.	66	Sunny day.
	12.30 P.M.	68	
	5.30 P.M.	69	
	11.30 P.M.	68	
May 6	7.30 A.M.	67	
	11.30 A.M.	70½	
	12.30 P.M.	71	
	3.0 P.M.	73½	
	10.30 P.M.	69	

		Degrees.	
May 7	8.0 A.M.	69½	
	10.20 A.M.	70¼	
	7.0 P.M.	72½	
	11.0 P.M.	70	
May 8	7.30 A.M.	69½	
	1.0 P.M.	73	
May 9	10.0 A.M.	70	
	12.0	69¾	
	6.20 P.M.	67½	
May 10	8.0 A.M.	68	
	12.0	67¾	
	3.30 P.M.	68	
	6.0 P.M.	68	
May 11	1.0 A.M.	67	Rainy.
	7.30 A.M.	67	
	12.30 P.M.	68	
May 12	7.40 A.M.	67	
	3.15 P.M.	69½	
May 13	8.30 A.M.	68	
	1.30 P.M.	70	
May 14	8.25 A.M.	67½	
	1.5 P.M.	69¾	
	7.0 P.M.	70½	
May 15	8.0 A.M.	69	
	12.30 P.M.	71	
May 16	-		
May 17	8.0 A.M.	70½	
	12.30 P.M.	72	
May 18	7.30 A.M.	72	
	1.0 P.M.	74½	
	4.30 P.M.	75½	
	7.30 P.M.	74	
	10.5 P.M.	73	
May 19	6.30 A.M.	92	
	10.30 A.M.	73¼	
	12.45 P.M.	73¼	
	8.0 P.M.	70	
May 20	11.10 A.M.	70½	
	1.0 P.M.	72	
	4.0 P.M.	93½	
May 21	-		
May 22	7.30 A.M.	71	
	12.0	72	
	3.30 P.M.	73¾	Cherries ripe. *See* page 50, Report.
	5.0 P.M.	74¼	
	6.40 P.M.	73	
May 23	7.0 A.M.	71	
	3.15 P.M.	74	
	5.25 P.M.	74¼	

		Degrees.
May 24	8.10 A.M.	70½
	12.45 P.M.	73
	5.15 P.M.	74½
May 25	9.0 A.M.	72
	1.0 P.M.	73
	5.0 P.M.	75
May 26	8.30 A.M.	73
	12.0	73
	3.0 P.M.	74¾
May 27	7.0 A.M.	73
	11.0 A.M.	73
	12.0	73½
	1.0 P.M.	74
	2.40 P.M.	75
	10.15 P.M.	74
May 28	7.30 A.M.	73½
	11.30 A.M.	74½
	12.0	74¾
	3.0 P.M.	77½
	5.30 P.M.	77½
	8.0 P.M.	76
	10.15 P.M.	75
May 29	6.45 A.M.	74
	10.30 A.M.	74
	11.45 A.M.	75½
	3.30 P.M.	79½
May 30	7.30 A.M.	74
	8.45 A.M.	74¾
	11.0 A.M.	75½
	12.45 P.M.	98
	3.0 P.M.	79½
	6.0 P.M.	79¼
	9.50 P.M.	76¾
May 31	7.30 A.M.	76½
	9.55 A.M.	77
	11.5 A.M.	78¼
	12.50 P.M.	80½
	3.20 P.M.	82¼
	5.0 P.M.	82¼
	5.45 P.M.	81
June 1	6.30 A.M.	77½
	9.20 A.M.	78½
	10.25 A.M.	79¼
	12.30 P.M.	81½
	2.0 P.M.	81¾
	2.30 P.M.	82
	5.0 P.M.	82¾
	9.45 P.M.	80½

		Degrees.	
June 2	7.0 A.M.	78½	
	8.45 A.M.	78¾	
	12.0	81	
	1.0 P.M.	81¾	
	2.45 P.M.	82	
	5.0 P.M.	82	
June 3	7.15 A.M.	79	
	8.40 A.M.	79	
	10.0 A.M.	80	
	11.0 A.M.	81	
	12.10 P.M.	81¾	
	2.25 P.M.	81¾	
June 4	7.15 A.M.	79½	
June 5	3.15 P.M.	82	
	4.45 P.M.	82	
June 6	5.15 A.M.	77	
	7.30 A.M.	76	
	10.50 A.M.	78½	
	1.0 P.M.	79	
	2.20 P.M.	79½	
	5.5 P.M.	79½	
June 7	7.30 A.M.	77	A short hurricane, with thunder and lightning.
	9.45 A.M.	76¼	
	10.30 A.M.	76¾	
	12.0	77	
	1.0 P.M.	77	
	2.30 P.M.	78	
	5.0 P.M.	77½	
	11.0 P.M.	74¼	
June 8	8.15 A.M.	74	
	10.0 A.M.	74	
	1.0 P.M.	73¾	
	2.15 P.M.	74	
	4.45 P.M.	73½	
	7.0 P.M.	73½	
	11.30 P.M.	73½	
June 9	7.45 A.M.	73½	
	9.15 A.M.	72½	
	10.40 A.M.	73½	
	2.30 P.M.	74½	
	3.45 P.M.	74¾	
	7.0 P.M.	73	
	10.0 P.M.	73	
June 10	8.0 A.M.	71	
	10.5 A.M.	72	
	2.30 P.M.	73¼	
	4.30 P.M.	74½	
	6.30 P.M.	74½	
	10.0 P.M.	74	
June 11			

		Degrees.
June 12	8.0 A.M.	73
	2.50 P.M.	75
	5.30 P.M.	75½
	7.45 P.M.	74¾
June 13	-	
June 14	-	
June 15	8.0 A.M.	74¼
	9.50 A.M.	75
	11.15 A.M.	77
	12.50 P.M.	79
	3.20 P.M.	80
	4.50 P.M.	79½
	9.15 P.M.	77½
June 16	8.0 A.M.	76
	12.0 A.M.	83¾
	1.0 P.M.	85½
	2.30 P.M.	86½
	10.0 P.M.	79
June 17	9.30 A.M.	76
	11.0 A.M.	79
	3.0 P.M.	83½
	6.45 P.M.	82
	10.30 P.M.	79
June 18	1.0 P.M.	82
	4.20 P.M.	85
June 19	9.0 A.M.	80
	12.15 P.M.	82½
	1.0 P.M.	84
	2.30 P.M.	85½
	3.45 P.M.	85½
	10.30 P.M.	82
June 20	7.0 A.M.	94½
	11.0 A.M.	82
	1.0 P.M.	84
	3.0 P.M.	85½
	5.30 P.M.	85
	10.15 P.M.	80
June 21	9.45 A.M.	80
	12.15 P.M.	80½
	1.0 P.M.	81
	4.45 P.M.	83
	6.45 P.M.	81
	11.30 P.M.	78
June 22	9.0 A.M.	79
	10.0 A.M.	79
	11.15 A.M.	79
	1.0 P.M.	81¾
	5.15 P.M.	84½
	9.0 P.M.	80
	12.30 P.M.	77

		Degrees.
June 23	8.45 A.M.	79¼
	10.0 A.M.	79½
	1.0 P.M.	82
	9.45 P.M.	82½
June 24	7.0 A.M.	79
	11.0 A.M.	82
	12.0 A.M.	84
	3.45 P.M.	86½
	9.0 P.M.	83
June 25	7.45 A.M.	78½
	10.20 A.M.	79½
	1.0 P.M.	81
	6.0 P.M.	82½
	7.30 P.M.	80½
June 26	-	
June 27	9.50 A.M.	75
	1.0 P.M.	76
	4.30 P.M.	76½
	6.30 P.M.	75½
June 28	10.45 A.M.	75
	1.0 P.M.	76
	2.30 P.M.	76
	4.20 P.M.	77½
	9.0 P.M.	76
June 29	7.30 A.M.	75½
	9.45 A.M.	76
	10.45 A.M.	76
	1.0 P.M.	79
	11.0 P.M.	75
June 30	7.30 A.M.	74
	9.0 A.M.	74½
	10.30 A.M.	75½
	12.0	77
	1.0 P.M.	78½
	2.30 P.M.	79½
	3.30 P.M.	80
	5.15 P.M.	79
	11.20 P.M.	75
July 1	11.0 A.M.	76
	1.5 P.M.	78¾
	3.10 P.M.	80
	10.15 P.M.	96
July 2	9.30 A.M.	76½
	1.0 A.M.	80
	2.30 P.M.	81¾
	4.45 P.M.	83
July 3	7.30 A.M.	76¼
	1.0 P.M.	79
	3.30 P.M.	81
	4.45 P.M.	80¾
	10.30 P.M.	78½

		Degrees.
July 4	9.20 A.M.	79
July 5	0.0 A.M.	79
	11.30 A.M.	80
	1.0 P.M.	81
	4.5 P.M.	83¾
	5.30 P.M.	83
	9.40 P.M.	80¾
July 6	9.0 A.M.	79
	10.45 A.M.	80¼
	1.0 P.M.	82¾
	2.30 P.M.	83
	4.0 P.M.	85½
	5.15 P.M.	84½
	10.0 P.M.	81½
July 7	9.0 A.M.	80
	12.10 P.M.	82
	1.0 P.M.	82¼
	2.15 P.M.	84
	3.45 P.M.	83¾
	10.0 P.M.	81
July 8	5.0 P.M.	82
	10.45 P.M.	80⅔
July 9	7.45 A.M.	79¼
	9.45 A.M.	79½
	11.0 A.M.	80¼
	2.40 P.M.	84
	5.45 P.M.	83½
	9.10 P.M.	83
	9.0 P.M.	81
July 10	7.45 A.M.	80
	1.0 P.M.	83½
	10.0 P.M.	82
	11.0 P.M.	82
July 11	7.30 A.M.	81
	9.45 A.M.	81¾
	1.0 P.M.	84½
	3.30 P.M.	87
	4.40 P.M.	87
	6.45 P.M.	86
	9.10 P.M.	85½
	11.30 P.M.	84½
July 12	7.45 A.M.	82¾
	9.15 A.M.	83½
	1.0 P.M.	87
	3.30 P.M.	89
	4.25 P.M.	89
	9.0 P.M.	86
	10.0 P.M.	85¼

		Degrees.	
July 13	9.45 A.M.	86	
	11.10 A.M.	88½	
	1.0 P.M.	89½	
	2.30 P.M.	90½	
	5.30 P.M.	89½	
	11.10 P.M.	85½	
July 14	7.45 A.M.	85	Excessively stormy night, with north wind.
	10.30 A.M.	85½	
	11.30 A.M.	86¾	
	12.45 P.M.	87¼	
July 15	9.15 A.M.	81	Excessively stormy night again, with north wind.
	12.0	83	
	5.45 P.M.	83¼	
	10.30 P.M.	79½	
July 16	8.30 A.M.	79¾	North wind.
	10.30 A.M.	80¾	
	1.0 P.M.	82	
	4.30 P.M.	84	
	11.0 P.M.	80	
July 17	6.45 A.M.	75½	An Inbat.
	1.0 P.M.	86	
July 18	-		
July 19	-		
July 20	9.30 A.M.	83	
	2.0 P.M.	87½	
	10.30 P.M.	84½	
July 21	7.45 A.M.	82¾	An Inbat.
	2.0 P.M.	86	
	3.30 P.M.	86½	
	4.0 P.M.	86¾	
July 22	9.45 A.M.	83	
	11.0 A.M.	84	
	12.20 P.M.	85½	
July 23	10.25 A.M.	83	
	11.30 A.M.	85	
	1.0 P.M.	86¼	
	4.0 P.M.	88	
	6.30 P.M.	87¼	
	10.15 P.M.	85	
July 24	7.30 A.M.	84	
	2.30 P.M.	88¾	
	3.30 P.M.	90	
	4.45 P.M.	89½	
	11.30 P.M.	87	
July 25	9.20 A.M.	89¼	
	11.25 A.M.	89¾	
	1.0 P.M.	89¾	
	3.0 P.M.	90¼	
	4.45 P.M.	89¾	

		Degrees.	
July 26	11.20 A.M.	89½	
	12.45 P.M.	89⅔	
	3.25 P.M.	91¾	
July 27	—		
July 28	9.0 A.M.	85	Strong Inbat.
	2.40 P.M.	88	
	6.0 P.M.	86½	
July 29	10.0 A.M.	84	Inbat.
	12.50 P.M.	85½	
	2.30 P.M.	86¼	
	4.15 P.M.	87	
	8.0 P.M.	85	
July 30	7.45 A.M.	83	Inbat.
	1.0 P.M.	85½	
	4.30 P.M.	86¼	
	9.40 P.M.	84	
July 31	12.30 P.M.	84½	Inbat.
	3.30 P.M.	86½	
August 1	7.30 A.M.	82	Inbat.
	1.30 P.M.	85	
	3.0 P.M.	85½	
	8.50 P.M.	83	
August 2	1.15 P.M.	85⅔	North land breeze.
	5.30 P.M.	86⅔	
August 3	—	—	North land breeze.
August 4	8.0 A.M.	86	North wind from land, replaced by Inbat in the afternoon.
	11.0 A.M.	87	
	12.30 P.M.	88	
	2.45 P.M.	90⅔	
	5.20 P.M.	90½	
	9.10 P.M.	88½	
August 5	8.15 A.M.	86	Inbat.
	9.45 A.M.	86	
	11.20 A.M.	87¼	
	1.15 P.M.	88	
	3.25 P.M.	89¾	
	5.0 P.M.	88	
August 6	7.30 A.M.	84	Inbat.
	9.50 A.M.	84½	
	1.15 P.M.	85⅓	
	3.0 P.M.	86¼	
August 7	12.0 P.M.	84½	
August 8	3.20 P.M.	86½	North wind.
August 9	8.15 A.M.	84	Inbat.
	1.0 P.M.	85½	
	3.15 P.M.	87	
August 10	10.0 A.M.	83½	Inbat.
	10.49 A.M.	84	
	2.30 P.M.	86	
	3.30 P.M.	86	

		Degrees.	
August 11 -	8.45 A.M.	84	Inbat
	11·45 A.M.	85	
	1.0 P.M.	85½	
	2.30 P.M.	86½	
August 12 -	7.45 A.M.	84½	Inbat.
	9.30 A.M.	84	
	12.45 A.M.	85⅔	
	3.20 P.M.	87½	
	5.0 P.M.	87⅔	
August 13 -	10.25 A.M.	84	Inbat.
	1.0 P.M.	87	
	4.10 P.M.	87½	
August 14 -	10.0 A.M.	83½	Inbat.
	12.40 P.M.	85	
August 15 -	10.0 A.M.	83	
	1.0 P.M.	84	
	9.0 P.M.	84	
August 16 -	10.0 A.M.	84	
	11.30 A.M.	84	
	1.0 P.M.	85¼	
	2.30 P.M.	86½	
	3.45 P.M.	86¾	
August 17 -	10.50 A.M.	84	North wind.
	1.15 P.M.	84½	
	2.20 P.M.	84½	
	4.0 P.M.	85½	
August 18 -	12.0 A.M.	82½	
	1.0 P.M.	83½	
	4.0 P.M.	84½	
	5.30 P.M.	84	
August 19 -	10.0 A.M.	82½	North wind.
	12.0 A.M.	82	
	1.0 P.M.	83	
	3.25 P.M.	83	
	4.0 P.M.	83	
August 20 -	2.40 P.M.	83	

Commercial Miscellanea.

A.—*Wages and Prices in* 1854-5-6.

During the war the demand both for labour and provisions was very much increased. The price of corn alone rose 60 per 100, and other articles of food in like proportion. Very many of the labouring population went to the Crimea to seek their fortunes in one line or another, and besides this the numbers of hands employed in Smyrna by the British Government contributed also to raise the scale of wages. In consequence, the rate of payments both for labour and provisions was much higher during the last two years than is usual in Anatolia. At Sedikioi, a village seven miles from Smyrna, and a place from which a great quantity of figs and grapes are brought into the town daily during the season, a labourer received 12 piastres (2*s.*) for his day's work in the year 1854-5. Previously, the rate per diem had been 7 piastres (1*s.* 2*d.*) At the close of the year 1855 the prices at Sedikioi ranged as follows :—

	Piastres.	Piastres.
Bread of good quality	2 per oke = 2½lb.	Price of, 1854, 1¼
A sheep - - -	80	
A lamb - - -	40–50	
A goat - - -	50–70	
A kid - - -	30–40	
Best beef - -	8 per oke=3 piastres (6*d.*) per lb.	
A yoke of oxen to plough with,	1,000 piastres (8*l.*)	

Close to Smyrna, at the leech ponds in the Valley of St. Anne (*see* page 60), we found the wages of some Abyssinian blacks to be 8 piastres per diem, and the salary paid the Turk who acted as overlooker, and lived day and night on the spot, was 250 piastres per month—24*l.* per annum. It is obvious that with such prices as these the condition of the labouring population will be one of tolerable comfort, so far as the procuring the principal necessaries of life goes; and every one may observe a general appearance of health and strength in the physical development of the labouring classes, whether his eye rest on the sturdy, round-limbed and short-jointed Turk, or the lithe, elegant, yet active and sinewy form of the Greek. Women are employed in out-of-door labour of the lighter kinds, such as weeding of vineyards, &c., but not to the extent so painful to witness in Syria and Egypt.

B.—*Fig Boxes, Round and Square.*

Fig drums.

Economy of labour is consulted, though economy of stowage is not, by the construction of a circular box. The circular form is thus attained: the piece which is to be of this form is of some pine wood; this, when in the plane condition, and not very exactly cut or squared, is placed before a chip and shaving fire, and warmed through and through, and it thus acquires some degree of pliancy and ductility. For the second part of the operation the following machine is employed: a bar of iron set all round with cogs is made to revolve by a hand crank, and there is at about the distance of the thickness of the fig-box board a stout framework of wood just below this iron bar; into the interval thus formed the warmed wood is introduced; it is gradually pulled forwards by the cogs of the revolving bar, which, as it were, knead it into pliancy, and destroy any tendency to brittleness, and when it has passed through it has gained a circular contour, and lost all its resiliency. By this method a drum is made in a very short time.

Square boxes.

The square boxes are some of them made by Greeks, and these are of an inferior kind. The best square boxes come from Germany, and are destined by the exporters to contain a peculiar quality of fig. The shape of the fig box depends upon the orders of the exporter, and therefore it is incorrect to ascribe the persistence of the round shape to the obstinate and irrational preference for that which is old, simply because it is old, which the Turk really does show in so many instances.

C.—*Valley of the Mœander.—Town of Aidin, ancient Tralles.*

The Englishman, on looking down over the vast green and smiling valley of the Mæander thinks, that in no other country except his own has he seen so large a space with so few uncultivated, unproductive spots. The valley and the town of Aidin are almost exclusively Turk; and after the many comparisons which have been drawn in this report to the disadvantage of the Turk, it is only fair to say that the state of cultivation here leaves little to be desired. Favoured highly by nature, man's labour has ably availed itself here of the advantages it has found ready to its hand. The whole valley is surrounded by lofty wooded mountains; it is intersected with streams, and irrigation is extensively carried out. Hedges of the English type are very generally to be found, and enclosures of one sort or other are universal.

Produce.

It is the boast of the inhabitants that they have a harvest for every month of the year, and by reckoning in of calves, lambs, and kids, the number is easily made out; the nine other great and staple products are valonea, madder, wheat, barley, maize, tobacco, grapes, figs, olives. Throughout the war a considerable number of horned cattle, averaging about 100 per week, were exported from Smyrna to the order of the French Commissariat in the East. As there is no great quantity of grass land close to Smyrna, the depôts for these cattle were formed at some distance from the place of embarkation, and many hundreds might be seen grazing in the valleys of the Mæander and its tributaries.

Within the valley itself there are tolerable roads, but its communication with the rest of the country is carried on by means of as bad roads as can be conceived.

Historical Notice.

Aidín, the ancient Tralles, was, under the Roman empire, a Greek town of considerable note. Anthemius, the architect of Santa Sophia, was a native of this place, and the remains of ancient buildings are very conspicuous there at the present day. The three great arches of the palace form an object visible at 20 miles distance, and on a nearer inspection tolerably perfect remains of a theatre are still to be seen. We found the marble remains in a rapid process of transformation into headstones for Jewish graves, and we saw several columns being scooped out into the form of stone drinking troughs.

The immediate neighbourhood was the scene of a great victory gained by Conrad III., A.D. 1147, in the time of the second Crusade, over the Turks, who, by the perfidy of Manuel Comnenus, the Greek emperor, had been enabled to prepare a surprise for the Latin army.

Turkish conquest, A.D. 1313.

In the 14th century Tralles was seized upon by Aidin, a Turkish emir, at the head of a numerous horde, and its name was changed in honour of its conqueror. Aidin seized upon Smyrna at the same time, and held and handed down to his son a considerable and independent principality. At this time a large portion of Asia Minor was parcelled out into small kingdoms of this kind under Turkish emirs, who maintained an independent existence till the days of Bajazet and Mahomet II.

Present condition.

At the present moment the Valley of Aidin contains a large population, principally Turks, who have within the last few months taken occasion to show their dislike for their new reform bill by an outbreak against the Christian population. The Christians of this part of Asia Minor being in a small numerical minority, at a distance from the sea coast, and in consequence, from effective protection on

Turks and Christians.

the part of the European powers, and surrounded by a fanatical Mussulman population, are very constantly subject to insult and injustice at their hands. The stories of this kind, though possibly somewhat exaggerated, are yet too general not to contain some considerable foundation of truth.

It is a principal seat of government, and the Bey, who is at present a most intelligent and courteous Arab, has several towns subordinated to him.

The Turkish character of Aidin is strongly marked by the large flocks of storks and vultures, which, secure of being unmolested in the centre of a Mussulman population, are nearly as tame as if domesticated.

Character of town.

The town is remarkable for the extent of ground it is spread over, and when looked down upon from the top of the hill under which it lies, and upon which the ancient city once stood, its roofs contrast in two points with those of most Turkish towns, viz., 1st, by their excellent state of repair; 2nd, by the wide interval of garden and orchard by which they are separated from each other. The population may be estimated at from 40,000 to 50,000, of whom the immense majority are Turks.

There are two barracks in different parts of the town, both unoccupied, May 1856, and in some respects suffering from neglect. There is a large expanse of table land above the town, amounting to from 2,000 to 3,000 acres, covered for one-third of its extent with olive groves, but in the rest smooth grassy downs.

D.—*Wine and Raki manufactured in Anatolia.*

Wine.

Much wine is manufactured in Anatolia, and it is chiefly owing to the total want of care exercised in selecting the grapes and sorting the vines, that with its fine, equable, and reliable climate it does not export wine much more largely. A considerable quantity, however, was exported to Odessa and other Russian ports previous to the war; the great mass is made by Greeks, and a very great number of these manufactories are to be found clustered together within a short distance of the great Greek church of St. Photeina. The better sorts of this wine, both white and red, but especially the former of the two, though not made to last more than five or six years, were preferred by many of the English stationed at Smyrna, 1855–56, to the wines of France, Sicily, and other parts of the Mediterranean, though these wines, as being largely imported, and paying scarcely any

duty, were exceedingly cheap, and country wine of one sort or other is the common drink in the houses of the richest families in the town, whether European or of other races.

We were informed by M. Moraitini that wine intended for an ordinary dinner wine cost him in the gross 50 paras ($2\frac{1}{2}d.$) the oke—$1\frac{1}{4}d.$ per quart, without reckoning any charges for transfer to casks, &c., and that wine of this quality and from this source was retailed in Russia at 5 piastres the oke—*i.e.*, $5d.$ the quart. *Price.*

There are numerous distilleries for raki in Smyrna. This spirit is distilled off the dried carpels and stalks of an umbelliferous plant resembling anise, and called γλυκάνισον, and subsequently as much of the gum mastic is added as the spirit will dissolve. It is a favourite drink with the Greek, and, *being colourless, with the Turkish population,* and its great cheapness favours much the habit of drunkenness. *Raki.*

Its price ranges from 6 to 7 piastres the oke—$6d.$ to $7d.$ for nearly a quart, English wine measure.

E.—*Sources for Information upon Commerce of Smyrna.*

There are three returns published in Smyrna periodically, all of which we have consulted.

1. A return is printed quarterly at the office of the Austrian Lloyd Company for an association of the Smyrna merchants, giving lists of exports and imports of the ships which have entered and cleared from the port, &c. A certain number only of these returns are printed, corresponding with the number of subscribers, and hence we are unable to affix a specimen of this as of the two other similar documents.
2. The "Nunzio Commerciale," a return appearing three times a month, in Italian, giving a résumé of exports and imports, of the value of monies, &c., but not of shipping. We affix a specimen.
3. The "Lloyd Smyrnéen" was issued daily, but now appears only three days a week. Besides its other information, it gives the names of the captains of the vessels, which enable any one to see how few ships under the Turkish flag are commanded by Turks, the immense majority of their captains, as of their ships, having Greek names as well as Greek crews. Of this also we affix specimens.

7° *Anno.* *Smirne*, 1 *Marzo* 1856. N° 141.

Il presente foglio sorte regolarmente tre volte al mese giorno di Sabbato.

NUNZIO COMMERCIALE.

Si Abbonnano alla Tipog. P. Marcopulo.

TUTTI QUELLI ARTICOLI CHE HANNO M. SIGNIFICA MANCA, C. CALMA, S. V. SENZA VENDITA, S. SOSTENUTI.

IMPORTAZIONE.	Pesi	Piastre		Anno
Acciajo No. O	cant.	165	170	s
„ „ OO	—	170	175	s
Argento vivo	oka	38	40	c
Arsenico bianco e giallo	cant.	130	140	c
Bande stagnate	casse	430	435	s
Biacca di Rotterdam	cant.			
di Genova	casse	170	200	m
Buttirro di Russia	oka			m
Berrette rosse ossia (fes)				c
Di Vienna uso	—	22	28	c
Leon Adutt No. 1 2 a 3	doz.	22	28	c
Semo	—			c
Carta tre capelli assortiti	risma	27	37	c
Tre lune	—	70	75	c
Straccia battuta e mercantile	—	10 ½	11	c
Cocciniglia bianca	oka	45	65	c
Morrellona	—			m
Caffe di Moka le o/o	—			m
di America TR li per sacco	—	750	300	c
Cassia lignea	oka	22	24	c
Caviale nero	—			m
Rosso	—			m
Cuoja di Francia	oka	22	23	s
Cotoni filati	—			
Water 12 a 20	—	13 ½	13 ¾	
16 a 24	—	14 ½	14 ¾	
20 a 30	—	15 ½	15 ¾	
Chiodi di Carintia assortiti	—			
di Canal a 70 Tratte	—	210		
di Schizze di 9, 12, e 18	—	250	260	
di 30 e 40	baril.	246	270	
Uso Trieste di Litre 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	cant.			
10, 14 16, 20, 26, 30	—	120	125	
Faro di Olanda	oka	4	4 ½	c
Farina di America	baril.	270		c
Ferro di Russia in lame	cant.			m
„ inglese in lame assortiti	—	73	75	c

IMPORTAZIONE.	Pesi	Piastre		Anno
Ferro ingl. in tavole di 1 a 13	—	120		c
ingl. in verghe 6 grossezze	—	78	80	c
Fil di Ferro assortito	oka	4 ½		
d'Ottone No. 12, 36	—	15		c
d'Oro di Russia	dram	360		c
Garofali	oka	9		s
Grani di Tarsus	kilo			m
di Alepo	—			
Teneri	—			m
Indaco d'Olanda	oka	85	100	c
in casse di Bengale	—	90	100	c
Pelli maschi d'Andrianopoli	pajo			
Campegio	cant	55	60	c
Bosso	—	40	45	c
Mandorle dolci	oka	9 ¼		s
Noce moscate	—	55	60	c
Piombo	cant.	180	190	c
Pimento	oka	9	10	
Palini di Trieste assort. uso inglese	sacho	39		c
Pepe	oka	9		sv
Rum	gallo	13	13 ½	c
Riso di Europa	kilo	40	41	c
di Damieta	—	37	38	S
di Rosseto	—	35	36	S
Salamoniaco d'Indie	oka	8	8 ½	s
Inglese	—			
Stagno in verghe	cant.	880	890	s
Vitriolo inglese	—	45	50	c
di Trieste	—			m
Verde rame di Francia	oka	18		
Vitelli di Francia	doz	500	550	s
Zafrano	oka	40	45	C
Zenzero	cant	200	220	c
Zolfo in canoli fino	—	70		c
Zuccheri di Avana 1 e 2 qual	—			m
„ pesto di Anversa	—			m
„ in panni inglese	—			m
„ di America	—	295	305	s
„ di Olanda 1 e 2 qual	—	270	280	s

VENDITE DELLA SETTIMANA.

Oppio	coffee	2	P.	115
Zucheri di Ollanda	can.		„	
Alizzari	bal.	1000	„	298½ 310
Caffe	sac.		„	
Valonea Ingl.	cant.	2000	„	70
id. Trieste	„		„	
Setta Pajambol	sac.		„	
Ruia	gal.		„	
Lana lavata	cant.	250	„	500 505
id. brutta	„	2000	„	238
Galla Mussur	cant.	60	„	390
Cera gialla	cant.	150	„	1020 1045
Orzo	kilo		„	
Pelletoni 2 qualità	tzechi	1000	„	20
Grano di Anatolia	kilo		„	
Grana gialla	sac.	162	„	6 7¾
Filik	tzeki	500	„	55½

CAMBJ.

Londra	117½	
Marsiglia	185½	186
Trieste	454	458
Livorno		
Ollanda		
Costantinopoli caime	12½	13 o/o

Londra	
Marsiglia	
Trieste	
Ollanda	
Costantinopoli	

MONETE. in beslik.

L. Turque	P.	108 ½
L. Inglese	„	118 –
Cecchini nuovi	„	21 ½
„ vecchi	„	27 –
Mahmudié	„	92 –
Luigi di oro	„	98 –
Pol Imperiale	„	95 ½
Colonati	„	27 –
Regine	„	24 ¾
Bavaresi	„	23 ¾
Dubloni	„	392 –
Pezzi di 5 franchi	„	23 ¾
„ di 5 draciumi	„	20 ¾
Carbovantzi	„	18 ¾

ESPORTAZIONE.	Pesi	Piastre			Anno
Alizari Bakir	cant	305	306		s
„ Kayagik	—	302	303		s
„ Ghiordes	—				s
„ Demirgik	—	298			s
„ Tarabolus	—				s
Asfori di Persia	oka	13			
Allume	cant	90	100		
Cotoni Soubugia	—				m
Cassaba uso	—	320	330		s
Chircagatz	—				m
Baindir	—				m
Axar	—				m
Kinick	—				m
Cera Gialla naturale	—1	030	040		s
Ceci	kilo	40	45		s
Seme dicanape	—	19	20		s
Filati bianchi No. 10 a 11	oka				m
detto Cantar	—				m
Fave	kilo	24	28		s
Faggioli	—	43	44		s
Fighi secchi 1 e 2 qualità	cant				m
Elemo	—				m
Grano di Ussach 1 qual.	kilo	56	58		c
„ 2 qual.	—	48	50		c
Granone	—	20	22		c
„ piccolo bianco	—	16	17		c
Grana di Persia	oka		7	½	s
Mezza	—				m
Gala di Aleppo nera	cant				m
Verde	—				m
Bianca	—				m
Jerli nera	—	410			c
Verde	—	220			c
Bianca	—	200	210		c
Zinchir	—	170			c
Gomma Dragande fiore	oka	25			sv
Naturale	—	15			sv
Commune	—	11			sv
Vermicelle	cant	22			sv
Arabica naturale	—	300	350		c
Giala	oka	100			m
Salep	—	10	12		c
Scamonea	—	200	400		s
Sandraca	—	10	12		m
Mastice	—	100	200		s
Incenso lagrime	cant	210	220		c
Assortito	—	180	190		c
Lana sucida. brutta	—	258			s
Seconda qualità	—				m
Nera Griggia	—				m
Suc. Brutta	—				m

ESPORTAZIONE.	Pesi	Piastre.			Anno
Lana Lavata	cant	500			c
„ bianca d'Angora ossia filik 2	oke	55	55	½	s
Noccioli	cant				m
Noce	oka	1	½		sv
Oppio	dram	114	115		c
Olio di Metelino e Adramiti fro. a	cant	280	285		s
„ di Anatolia	—	270	310		c
„ di Rosa	mle	20			c
Orzo	kilo	24	26		sv
Pelo di Garubelo lavoro inglese 2	oke	44	45		s
Olandese	—				m
Biggio c rosso	—	39	40		s
Peletoni rossi e neri	—	29	30		s
Pelle di Lepre 100 pelle 1 qualità	—				c
„ „ 2 e 3 „	—				c
Pelli salate secchi	oka	7	½	8	c
Radice Saponaria	—	1	½		c
Rame Vecchio	—	18			m
Seme d'Amst. 1 qualità	—				m
2 qualità	—				m
di Lino	—	3			c
di Giorjolina	kilo	55	56		c
Comino	oka				
Seta di Brussa oka	—				m
Pajambol	—				m
Sapone di Canea in casse	cant	190	195		sv
di Candia	—	200			sv
di Metelino in casse 1 qual.	—	180	185		sv
in sacchi	—				m
Tapetti grandi	pik	31	32		c
„ piccoli di Persia	—	30	45		c
„ di Kulla	luno	100	1000		c
„ di Ghiordhes	pik	40			c
Valonea uso Trieste	cant				s
„ „ 2 qualità	—				
„ uso Ing. 1 qualità franco	—	72			s
„ „ 2 qualità a	—	67			s
„ mercantile bordo	—				s
„ Camatina	—				c
Uva Sultanina Jerli	oka				m
id Vurla	cant				c
id. sielta Zuplu	—				c
Naturale	—				c
Cesme	—				m
De Nera	—				m
Sultana Caraburnu	—				c
Eleme id.	—				c
Jerli rossa	—				c
id. nera	—				c
Beghlerge	—				c
Nera Thira Baindir		70	75		sv

NOLLI DIVERSI.

INGHILTERA.

Alizari	S.	50	la ton.
Valonea		40	„
Cotoni	L.		„
Lane		90	„
Frutta	„	100	„
Grana giala	S.	50	„
Comestibili		5	il quar.

AMERICA.

Frutta	L.	5½ 6	la tunel.
Lana	S.	¾ 1	m

OLANDA.

Frutta lasta	F.	58 10	o/o
Lana cant.	„		

MARSIGLIA.

Cotoni franchi		
Lana	3½	4
Commestibili	3½	4½
Grani oliosi		

TRIESTE.

Frutta	il cant	C. 35	40
Valonea	„	„ 50	55
Lana	„	„ 120	
Commestib	„	„	
Cera	„	„ 60	

NOLLI DI RUSSIA.

Taganrok Frutta	cant.	P.	m
Odessa id.	„	„	m
„ Grano Gomma	„	„	

RAGUAGLIO DELLE MISURE.

Metre di Francia pichi	1	45½/o
„ del Brabante	„	1
„ Arsin di Russia	„	1 ¾
La yarda Inglese	„	1 ½
2¾ pal di Genova	„	1

100 braccia di Livor	„	86	
100 di Berlino	„	66	½
100 di Vienna	„	113	

RAGUAGLIO DEI PESI.

1½ dr. fa un moscale ossia un xai di Vien.			
180 „ fano un Rottolo e 100 Rot. un Cant.			
400 „ fano una oka e 45 oke un cantaro.			
58 kilogr. di Parigi	„		„
125 Libre di Londra	„		„
166 di Livorno	„		„
180 di Genova	„		„
130 di Marsiglia	„		„
100 Fundi di Vienna	„		„
58½ di Ollanda	„		„
3½ Put di Russia	„		„
1 kilo di Grano	„	22	24½
1 „ di Rizo	„	10	
1 „ di Giorgiolina	„	16½	17

2° ANNÉE. SMYRNE, 17 NOVEMBRE 1855. N° 387.

LE LLOYD SMYRNÉEN.

Feuille Maritime et Commerciale.

Le Lloyd Smyrnéen paraît le Mardi, le Jeudi, et le Samedi de chaque semaine, il annonce les Arrivées et les Départs de tout espèce de navire même des plus petits, la qualité et quantité de leur chargement, les Bâtimens sous Charge, le Cours des Monnaies, ainsi que les Changes de Smyrne et de Constantinople, etc.

Le prix de l'Abonnement est de 36 Piastres du G.-S. par trimestre, payables d'avance. On s'abonne à l'imprimerie de MM. Daveroni et Sougiolli, *Quartier Franc*, N° 98, local G. Amic, Magasin N° 3.

ARRIVÉES.

Du 15 Novembre.

SATALIE, en 10 jours, goel. ott. Polixeni, cap. N. Pasvani, de 25 ton. avec 900 k. blé, à l'adr. de M. Peurdi.

LIGNE de SYRIE, bateau à vapeur des Mes. Imp. Leonidas, cap. Kéraval, avec march. div. groups et passag.

ALEXANDRIE, bat. à vapeur du Lloyd autr. Austria cap. Demattei, avec march. diverses groups et passagers.

MARSEILLE, bateau à vapeur des Mes. Imp. Carmel, cap. Saffrey, avec march. div. groups et passagers.

Du 16.

CONSTANTINOPLE, en 6 jours, brick sarde Due Fratelli, cap. H. P. Jarvino, de 160 ton. sur lest, à l'adr. de M. D. Parodi.

CONSTANTINOPLE, en 4 jours, brick autr. Vago, cap. F. Sutora, de 235 ton. sur lest, à ordre.

CONSTANTINOPLE, en 8 jours, brick sarde Rosa, cap. B. Montobio, de 114 ton. avec 238 b. tabac, 1180 k. blé. 264 id mais et 39 sacs id à l'adr. de M. A. Iossif.

METELIN, en 4 jours, tzer. ott. du cap. C. Saltapalanga, avec 350 k. blé, à l'adresse de M. Amira.

TENEDOS, en 6 jours, tzer. ott. du cap. G. Michali, avec 14000 ocques charbon.

CONSTANTINOPLE, en 15 jours, bomb. ott. Arghino cap. Nicolas Sotiri, de 38 ton, avec 1000 pièces peaux, 20 b. chiffons et 27 id laines.

SALONIQUE, en 10 jours, goel. ott. A. Gheorghios, cap. S. Christodhoulo, de 50 ton. avec 6500 pièces bois de construction.

DIKILI, tzer. ott. du cap. Hassan, avec 1000 pièces bois de construction.

AIVALI, en 4 jours, tzer. ott. du cap. N. Triandafillo, avec 140 quint. valonée, à l'adr. de M. Hadji Elia.

DARDANELLES, en 2 jours, goel. hell. Panaghia, cap. N. G. Manoli, de 33 ton. sur lest.

DARDANELLES, en 2 jours, goel. hell. A. Athanassis, cap. D. Stamati, de 42 ton. sur lest.

STANCHIO, tzer. ott. du cap. Ali Hassan, avec 8000 citrons.

MARSEILLE, en 39 jours, brick hell. Evanghelistra, cap. Andreas Marco, de 148 ton. sur lest, à ordre.

TENEDOS, en 7 jours, bomb. ott. Munissi Bahri, cap. Geini Etem, de 113 ton. avec 1100 quint. valonée à l'adr. de M. Balassanoglu.

Du 17.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bat. à vap. du Lloyd autr. Adria, cap. Benich, avec march. div. groups et passagers.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bat. à vap. des M. Imp. Caire, cap. de Sommer, avec march. div. groups et passagers.

Arrivées par les bateaux de Cabotage : de Ourlac, 686 sacs raisin, de Carabournou, 30 id. id.

DEPARTS.

Du 15 Novembre.

CONSTANTINOPLE, brick hell. A. Nicolaos, cap. A. Petroyani, avec 1000 sacs biscuits.

SATALIE, goel. franc. Jean-d'Acre, cap. Bonot, allant prendre un chargement de graine oléagineuse pour Marseille.

ECHELLE-NEUVE, trois-mâts franç. Trois-Sœurs, cap. J. Pailloux, allant prendre un chargement de graine oléagineuse pour Marseille.

SCODRA, goel. ott. Stella Diana, cap. Veli Mehemet, avec raisin, figues et galles.

SALONIQUE, goel. ott. Eftichia, cap. I. Dhimitri, avec 500 k. sesame, 3 bar. cire, 150 quint. figues, 100 id. fer, et 132 pièces marbres.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bat. à vap. des M. Imp. Carmel, cap. Saffrey, avec march. diverses groups et passagers.

Du 16.

LONDRES, trois-mâts à hélice angl. Arcadia, cap. Corbeth, avec 2077 sacs valonée, 1532 quint. id. 570 b. alizaris, 100 id. chiffons, 93 sacs galles, 2039 bustes sultanine, 337 c. raisin rouge, 3244 bustes figues, 1929 boites id, 21 skelettes id. 18 c. fruits, 6 c. gommes, 2 id. opium, 6 boites scamonée et 2 b. peaux.

BOSTON, bark amer. Speedwell, cap. E. H. Hews, avec 537 b. laines, 14 id. tabac et 10 c. opium.

TCHAM-ALTI, brick ott. Bahri Human Teki Hané, cap. Halil Hamet, allant prendre un chargement du sel pour Consple.

ALEXANDRIE, trois-mâts hanov. Rapid, cap. Pike, sur lest.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bat. à vap. du Lloyd autr. Austria, cap. Demattei, avec march. div. groups et pass.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bomb. ott. A. Nicolas, cap. D. Perlorenzo, avec 450 k. haricot, 440 id fèves, 108 quint. raisin noir et 25 id miel.

SALONIQUE, brick ott. Possidhon, cap. G. Pupuri, avec 600 b. peaux, 1300 pieces id. 260 sacs hene, 203 id. tumbeki, 18 id. café, 49 id. girofle et 70 id. encens.

CONSTANTINOPLE, scho. angl. Zephyr, cap. Kelso, avec paille.

CONSTANTINOPLE, bat. à vap. des M. Imp. Leonidas, cap. Keraval, avec march. div. groups et passag.

TCHESME, tzer. ott. du cap. Mehemet, avec 250 quint. fer, 13 collis tabac et 18 id. manufactures.

TCHESME, tzer. ott. du cap. Belali, avec 40 k. orge.

TENEDOS, tzer. ott. du cap. Mehemet, avec 10 colis manufactures.

CHANGES DE CONSTANTINOPLE.

14 Novembre 1855.

Londres	3/m	145	à 145
Paris		230	—
Marseille		229	à 230½
Vienne		516	—
Trieste		516	—
Livourne		199	—
Livre Turque		135⅛	—

CHANGES DE SMYRNE. 17 Novembre.

(*En livres turques a piastres* 108.)

Londres		115½	à 116
Marseille		183	à 183½
Trieste		400	à 406
Constantinople Caïmés		20½	à 21 p. o/o

COURS DES MONNAIES.

(*En livres turques à piastres* 108.)

Livre Sterling	117½	—	
Louis d'or	93½	—	
Pièce de 5 francs	23½	—	
Paul Impérial	94½	—	
Carbovantz	18½	—	
Pièce de 5 drachmes	20½	21	
Ducats de Venise	56½	—	
„ *de Hongrie*	55½	—	
„ *de Hollande*	54	—	
Quadruple d'Espagne	392	—	
Piastre forte d'Espagne	27	—	
Tallari de la Reine	24¾	—	
Zvantzic	4	—	
Bavarois	23¾	—	
Livre Turque	108	—	
Mahmoudié	90	91	
Pièce de 20 piastres ancienne	25½	—	
„ „ *nouveau*	21½	—	
Agio sur les Beshliks	11 p. o/o		

Specimens from the Greek Newspaper.

We here affix some specimens of the articles contained in the Greek Journal published in Smyrna. One of them will be observed to bear the title Μέρος Εμπορικόν. An article of this name appears weekly, and contains all the current commercial intelligence. The other extracts give useful information on other points, and all serve to illustrate the character of the paper in question.

ΜΕΡΟΣ ΕΜΠΟΡΙΚΟΝ.

Εισαγωγή.

Commercial intelligence.

Διὰ τὰς προσεχεῖς ἑορτὰς τοῦ Πάσχα, ὅλα τὰ εἴδη τῆς εἰσαγωγῆς περιῆλθον εἰς ἀδράνειαν. Μόνον αἱ ζαχάρεις ἀνετιμήθησαν ὡς ἐκ τῆς ἐλλειψεώς των καὶ ἐπωλήθησαν ἀμερικανικαὶ πρὸς γρ. 320 καὶ γαλλικαὶ ἐπὶ προσδοκίᾳ πρὸς γρ. 280.

Ἐξαγωγή.

ΑΦΙΟΝΙΑ.—Ἐπωλήθησαν ὀλίγα πρὸς γρ. 116.
ΡΙΖΑΡΙΑ.—Μπακίρια γρ. 302-303 μὲ ὀλίγας πράξεις.
ΓΡΑΝΑΙ.—Μικραὶ πράξεις ἔγειναν πρὸς γρ. 6-6 „ 20.
ΒΑΛΑΝΙΔΙΑ.—Εἰς ἀδράνειαν. Τιμὴ γρ. 60-70.
ΚΗΡΙΑ.—Καθαρισμένα γρ. 950.
ΣΙΤΗΡΑ.—Ἐκπεσμένα. Σῖτος γρ. 25-32·—κριθὴ 14-12·—ἄλευρα 50-110.

ΣΥΝΑΛΛΑΓΜΑΤΑ ΣΜΥΡΝΗΣ.

Μὲ Ὀθωμανικὰς λίρας πρὸς 108.

ΛΟΝΔΙΝΟΥ	118
ΜΑΣΣΑΛΙΑΣ	186
ΤΕΡΓΕΣΤΗΣ	464—467.

ΕΜΠΟΡΙΟΝ ΤΗΣ ΤΡΑΠΕΖΟΥΝΤΟΣ ΚΑΤΑ ΤΟ 1855.

Return of Commerce of Trebisond for 1855.

Τὰ αἴτια ὅσα κατὰ τὸ 1854 ἐπενήργησαν εἰς τὴν αὔξησιν τοῦ ἐμπορίου τῆς Τραπεζοῦντος, διήρκεσαν καὶ δι' ὅλου τοῦ ἔτους 1855. Κατὰ τὸ ἔτος τοῦτο κατέπλευσαν εἰς τὴν Τραπεζοῦντα·

	Ἀτμοκίνητα.	Ἱστιοφόρα φορτωμένα.	πλοῖα κενά.	Ὁμοῦ.
Αὐστριακὰ	45	2	—	47
Ἀγγλικὰ	28	8	—	36
Γαλλικὰ	—	—	2	2
Ἑλληνικὰ	—	2	—	2
Νορβηγικὰ	—	2	—	2
Ὀθωμανικὰ	—	36	4	40
	73	50	6	129
Ἐξέπλευσαν δὲ	73	15	34	122

Ἡ ὁλικὴ ἀξία τῶν εἰσαχθέντων κατὰ τὸ ἔτος τοῦτο ἀνέβη εἰς περίπου 60 ἑκατομμύρια γροσίων, ὧν.

Δι' αὐστριακῶν ἀτμοπλοίων περίπου		180,000,000 γρ.
„ ἀγγλικῶν	„ „	135,000,000 „
„ αὐστριακῶν πλοίων	„	480,000 „
„ ἀγγλικῶν	„ „	2,160,000 „
„ ἑλληνικῶν	„ „	2,470,000 „
„ νορβηγικῶν	„ „	8,000,000 „
„ ὀθωμανικῶν	„ „	12,000,000 „

ΕΜΠΟΡΙΟΝ ΤΗΣ ΑΜΙΣΟΥ (ΣΑΜΨΟΥΝΤΟΣ).

Return of Commerce of Samsoun for 1855.

Δημοσιεύομεν ἐνταῦθα πίνακα τοῦ ἐμπορίου τῆς Ἀμισοῦ (Σαμψοῦντος) κατὰ τὸ ἔτος 1855. Ὁ πίναξ οὗτος εἶναι ἀκριβὴς, διότι συνετάχθη ἐπὶ τῇ βάσει βεβαίων πληροφοριῶν.

Κατὰ τὸ 1855 ἔτος ἔγεινε πολὺ μεγαλήτερον ἐμπόριον ἢ κατὰ τὸ 1854, διότι καὶ ἡ εἰσαγωγὴ καὶ ἡ ἐξαγωγὴ ἦτο διπαμσία. Ἐν γένει δὲ ἡ κίνησις τοῦ ἐμπορίου ἦτο καλὴ, καὶ ἤθελεν ἀποδειχθῆ καλλιτέρα, ἂν ἡ συγκοινωνία πρὸς τὸ ἐσωτερικὸν ἦτον εὐκολωτέρα. Δυστυχῶς, ἡ κακὴ κατάστις τῶν ὁδῶν δὲν ἐπιτρέπει τὴν ταχεῖαν καὶ ἔγκαιρον μεταφορὰν τῶν ζητουμένων πραγματειῶν. Χάρις ὅμως εἰς τὴν ὑπερτίμησιν τῶν γεννημάτων, τὸ ἐσωτερικὸν ἐκινήθη ὁπωσοῦν. Οἱ συμμαχικοὶ στρατοὶ ἔλαβον ἐκ τῶν μερῶν τούτων μεγάλην ποσότητα βοῶν καὶ ἄλλων κερασφόρων ζώων, καὶ τὸ ἐμπόριον τοῦτο ἤθελε λάβει μεγάλην ἀνάπτυξιν, ἂν ἡ ἐπιζωοτία ἐπελθοῦσα δὲν ἠφάνιζεν ὑπὲρ τὰ 15,000 ζῶα.

Τῶν ὑφασμάτων περισσότερα εἰσήχθησαν κατὰ τὸ 1855 ἢ κατὰ τὸ 1854· ἅπαντα δὲ ἐπωλήθησαν διὰ τοὺς ἑξῆς λόγους· πρῶτον διότι οἱ χωρικοὶ ηὐπόρουν, καθὸ λαβόντες χρήματα ἐκ τῆς πωλήσεως τῶν γεννημάτων αὐτῶν· δεύτερον δὲ ἐκάησαν 700 δέματα εἰς τὴν ἐμπορικὴν πανήγυριν τοῦ Ζιλέ. Διὰ ταῦτα καὶ διὰ τὴν παρουσίαν πολλῶν ἀγοραστῶν αἱ τιμαὶ ἐκρατοῦντο.

Ἰδοὺ ὁ πίναξ τοῦ ἐμπορίου·

Ἐξαγωγή.

27,867	βόες	ἀξίας γρ.		8,362,800
31,094	πρόβατα	„	„	2,238,768
3,547	αἶγες καὶ ἀρνία	„	„	255,384
1,897	ἵπποι	„	„	1,709,100
196	ἡμίονοι	„	„	70,560
1,000	κάμηλοι	„	„	11,440,000
4,605	καντάρια πινιγοῦρι	„	„	221,040
1,735	„ βούτυρον	„	„	916,080
4,480	„ ἄνθρακες	„	„	161,280
6,000	κοιλὰ βρώμη	„	„	108,000
687,758	„ σῖτος	„	„	33,012,384
88,612	„ ἀραβόσιτος λευκὸς	„	„	2,126,904

400	„	κίτρινος	ἀξίας	γρ.	48,000
512,000	„	κριθὴ	„	„	21,504,204
50,162	καντάρια	ἄλευρον	„	„	4,414,568
20,772	„	χόρτος καὶ ἄχυρον	„	„	1,096,592
22,324	„	ῥεβίθια	„	„	650,400
65,100	τσεκῖὰ	καυσόξυλα	„	„	1,562,400
5,892	βάλλαι	ὑφάσματα καὶ ἄλλαι πραγμ.	„	„	5,656,520
29,000	καντάρια	διπυρίτης ἄρτος	„	„	4,176,000
1,048	„	μπαστουρμᾶ	„	„	62,880
16,043	πλάκες	ἀκατέργαστος χαλκὸς	„	„	12,512,330
1,007	κιβώτια	κατειργασμένος	„	„	725,040
8,500	καντάρια	ὀρύζιον	„	„	1,426,000
894	„	ἄλειμμα	„	„	375,480
24,990	βάλλαι	καπνὸς	„	„	11,995,200
179	„	μέταξα	„	„	1,718,400
			Τὸ ὅλον	γρ.	119,887,714

Εἰσαγωγή.

44	κιβώτια	χάλυψ	ἀξίας	γρ.	21,120
5,312	καντάρια	καφὲ	„	„	1,912,320
665	κιβώτια	χαρτὶ	„	„	635,900
418	„	σιδερικὰ	„	„	50,160
596	δέματα	τετσιὰ	„	„	1,072,808
622	„	νήματα	„	„	1,126,800
3,623	καντάρια	σίδηρος	„	„	1,079,116
16,769	βάλλαι	ὑφάσματα καὶ ἄλλαι πραγματ.	„	„	16,095,560
330	καντάρια	πιπέρι	„	„	67,200
7,784	κιβώτια	σαποῦνι	„	„	470,400
215	„	πήλινα ἀγγεῖα, κτλ.	„	„	387,000
715	βάλλαι	καναβόπανον	„	„	256,400
4,595	καντάρια	ζάχαρις	„	„	2,203,600
			Τὸ ὅλον	γρ.	25,578,184

Τῷ 1855 εἰσῆλθον εἰς τὸν λιμένα Ἀμισοῦ 446 πλοῖα, ὧν 56 αὐστριακὰ (45 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 11 ἱστιοκίνητα), 42 γαλλικὰ (23 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 19 ἱστιοκίνητα), 169 ἀγγλικὰ (70 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 99 ἱστιοκίνητα), 150 ὀθωμανικὰ (18 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 132 ἱστιοκίνητα), 25 σαρδικὰ (2 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 23 ἱστιοκίνητα), 5 νεαπολιτανικὰ (2 ἀτμοκίνητα καὶ 3 ἱστιοκίνητα), καὶ 2 τοσκανικὰ ἀτμοκίνητα.

"Leader" on Eastern question, Jan. 24, 1856.

Ἂς σημειώσωμεν δι' ὀλίγων τὴν κατάστασιν τῶν πραγμάτων τὴν πρὸ τῶν παραδόξων ἀγγελιῶν ἐξ ὧν ὁ κόσμος νέας συνέλαβεν ἐλπίδας. Ἡ κατάστασις αὕτη εἶναι ἀξιοσημείωτος καὶ διὰ τ' ἄλλα καὶ μάλιστα καθ' ὅσον ἀφορᾷ τὴν διαγωγὴν τοῦ ἀγγλικοῦ τύπου.

Warlike tone of English Press.

Ὅλη ἡ στάσις αὐτοῦ ἦτον ἐσχάτως πολεμικωτάτη. Μὲ ἀρειμάνιον βλέμμα κατεσκόπευε σύμπασαν τὴν ῥωσσικὴν ἐπικράτειαν ἀπὸ περάτων ἕως περάτων, ἀναζητῶν τὰ μᾶλλον εὐπρόσιτα καὶ τρωτὰ μέρη αὐτῆς· ἀπηρίθμει τὰ παλαιά καὶ νέα πλοῖα καὶ στρατεύματα τῆς θαλασσοκράτορος Ἀγγλίας, καὶ ἀνέφερε πάσας τὰς τεραστίας μηχανὰς ὅσας ἡ ἀγγλικὴ εὐφυΐα παρεσκεύαζε διὰ τὴν προσεχῆ κατὰ Ῥωσσίας ἐκστρατείαν, τὴν κρίσιμον· ὑπεδείκνυεν εἰς τοὺς στρατηγοὺς καὶ ναυάρχους τῆς συμμαχίας ποῦ καὶ πῶς ὤφειλον νὰ πατάξωσι καιρίως τὴν Φοβερὰν Αρκτον· ὅτε δὲ φιλάνθρωπός τις φωνὴ ἠκούσθη συμβουλεύουσα νὰ καταπαυθῇ ἡ μεγάλη πάλη διὰ συνόδου

The "Times."

τῶν ἡγεμόνων, ὁ Χρόνος ἔλεγε μετὰ ζήλου· "Παρὰ νὰ ὑποβάλωμεν τὴν διαφορὰν εἰς σύνοδον ἐν ᾗ ἡ Ῥωσσία θέλει εἶσθαι παντοδύναμος διὰ τῆς ψήφου τῶν ὑποτελῶν καὶ μισθωτῶν αὐτῆς, προτιμότερον νὰ ῥίνῃ μεταξὺ ἡμῶν ἡ σπάθη· εἶναι κριτὴς τυφλὸς μὲν, ἀληθῶς, ἀλλὰ πάντοτε ἀμερόληπτος. Δὲν ἐγυμνώσαμεν αὐτὴν ἀγνοοῦντες τί ἀπαιτεῖ, καὶ δὲν θέλομεν ἐπιστρέψει αὐτὴν εἰς τὴν θήκην χωρὶς ἐγγυήσεων ἰσχυροτέρων τῆς σοφίας ἢ τῆς εἰλικρινείας συνόδου ἡγεμόνων τῆς Εὐρώπης." Ἐκ τῶν λόγων τούτων, βεβαίως, οὐδεὶς ἐδύνατο νὰ εἰκάσῃ ὅτι ἐγγίζομεν εἰς τὴν εἰρήνην· πλὴν καὶ ἄλλα περιστατικὰ ἦσαν οὐχ ἧττον ἐπίφοβα.

The "Morning Post."

Ἡ Πρωσσία δὲν ἠθέλησε νὰ παραδεχθῇ ἀπολύτως καὶ νὰ ὑποστηρίξῃ ἐν Πετρουπόλει τὰς προτάσεις τοῦ κόμητος Ἐστερχάζη· ὁ δὲ Πρωϊνὸς Ταχυδρόμος, τὸ ὄργανον τοῦ πρωθυπουργοῦ τῆς Ἀγγλίας Λόρδου Πάλμερστων, μὴ πιστεύων ὅτι ἡ Ῥωσσία θέλει παραδεχθῇ τὰς προτάσεις ἐκείνας, ἀλλ' ὑποθέτων ὅτι πάλιν θέλει ἀναβάλει τὴν κρίσιν τῶν πραγμάτων διὰ ῥαδιουργιῶν, ὑπεδείκνυεν ὡς φοβερὰς Γοργόνας τὰς ναυτικὰς καὶ στρατιωτικὰς δυνάμεις τῆς Δύσεως, καὶ μάλιστα ἠπείλει δεινῶς τὴν Πρωσσίαν, λέγων ὅτι εὐκολωτέρα τῆς πρὸς τὴν Μόσχαν εἶναι ἡ πρὸς τὸ Βερολῖνον ἄγουσα ὁδὸς, ἐὰν τὸ κράτος τοῦτο τέλος πάντων δὲν ἀποφασίσῃ νὰ συνταχθῇ φανερὰ τῷ ἑτέρῳ τῶν διαμαχομένων μερῶν. Εἰς ταῦτα ἀπεκρίνετο, τρόπον τινὰ, τὸ ὄργανον τοῦ πρωθυπουργοῦ τῆς Πρωσσίας ὅτι ἡ Πρωσσία, ἐμμένουσα εἰς τὰς ἀρχὰς τὰς ὁποίας ἅπαξ ἐξέφρασεν, ἔχει ἑτοιμοπόλεμον πρὸς ὑποστήριξιν αὐτῶν στρατιωτικὴν δύναμιν τὴν ὁποίαν οὐδεὶς δύναται νὰ περιφρονήσῃ, καὶ ὅτι ὅλη ἡ Γερμανία, μὴ ἐξαιρουμένης τῆς Αὐστρίας, συμφωνοῦσα μετὰ τῆς Πρωσσίας ὡς πρὸς τὰς βάσεις τοῦ Ἀνατολικοῦ ζητήματος, εἶναι ἑτοίμη νὰ συνεργήσῃ ὅλαις δυνάμεσιν εἰς τὴν ἀποκατάστασιν τῆς εἰρήνης ἐπὶ βάσεων δικαίων καὶ μετρίων.

Attitude of Sweden and Denmark.

Ἡ Σουηδία εἶχε συνομολογήσει πρὸς τὰς δυτικὰς Δυνάμεις τὴν γνωστὴν συνθήκην, τὴν ὁποίαν κοινῶς ἐθεώρησαν ὡς βέβαιον προδρομον ἄλλης συνθήκης περὶ συμμαχίας καὶ ἐπιμαχίας κατὰ τὴν προσεχῆ ἐκστρατείαν, καὶ ὀλίγον μετὰ ταῦτα ἀνηγγέλλετο ὅτι καὶ ἡ Δανία

προέθετο ν'ἀκολουθήσῃ τὸ παράδειγμα τῆς Σουηδίας. Ἡ ἀγγελία αὕτη ἐψεύσθη ὕστερον, καὶ ὡς πρὸς τὴν παροῦσαν θέλησιν τῆς Δανίας καὶ ὡς πρὸς τὰ μέλλοντα βουλεύματα αὐτῆς· ἀλλὰ δὲν ὑπάρχει ἀμφιβολία ὅτι διὰ τὴν μετάστασιν τῆς Δυνάμεως ταύτης κατεβάλλοντο πολλαὶ προσπάθειαι.

TRANSLATION OF SPECIMENS FROM GREEK NEWSPAPER, "THE AMALTHEA," PUBLISHED AT SMYRNA.

i.—*Commercial Intelligence.*

COMMERCIAL PART.

Imports.

On account of the nearness of the Easter holidays little business is being transacted in any of our various kinds of imports. In sugars alone, on account of the shortness of the supply, is a rise of prices to be noted, and American sugars went off at pi. 320 and French at 280 on account.

Exports.

Opium.—A few sales were effected at pias. 116.

Madders.—At 302-303, with little doing.

Grains (Dye).—A little business transacted at 6-6, 20 piastres.

Valonia.—Inactivity. Prices, piastres 60-70.

Waxes.—Purified. Pias. 950.

Cereals.—A fall. Wheat, pias. 25-32. Barley, 14-12. Flour, 50-110.

Exchange of Smyrna.

With the Turkish pound at 108 piastres.

London	118.
Marseilles	186.
Trieste	464—467.

ii.—*Return of Commerce of Trebisond for* 1855.

The influence of the causes which contributed in the year 1854 to augment the commerce of Trebisond continued to to operate throughout the year 1855 also.

In this year 1855, the entries inwards at Trebisond were :—

	Steamers.	Sailing vessels with cargo.	Sailing vessels without cargo.	Total.
Austrian .	45	2	0	47
English . .	28	8	0	36
French . .	0	0	2	2
Greek . .	0	2	0	2
Norwegian .	0	2	0	2
Turk . .	0	36	4	40
	73	50	6	129
The outward bound	73	15	34	122

The total value of the imports of this year amounted to about 600 millions of piastres of which :—

Austrian steamers	imported about	180,000,000	paistres value.
English	„	135,000,000	„
Austrian sailing vessels	„	480,000	„
English	„	2,460,000	„
Greek	„	2,470,000	„
Norwegian	„	8,000,000	„
Turk	„	12,000,000	„

iii.—*Return of Commerce of Samsoun for* 1855.

We here publish a return of the commerce of Samsoun for the 1855. This return is trustworthy, as it was compiled from sources of undoubted authority.

In the year 1855 much more business was transacted than in 1854, so much so that the amount of exports and imports was doubled. Speaking generally, the movements of the market were active, and would have been more so, had the means of communication with the interior been on a better footing. Unfortunately, the dangerous state of the roads does not allow of a speedy and regular transport of goods as required. Thanks, however, to the excessive prices offered for cereals, one was enabled to act upon the resources of the interior to a certain extent. The allied armies drew from these parts a large quantity of beeves and other horned cattle, and this branch of commerce would have received a great development if the epidemic had not broken out and destroyed above 15,000 head of cattle.

More woven stuffs were imported in 1855 than in 1854, and the whole quantity was disposed of owing to the operation of the following causes :—First, the abundance of money circulating among the natives who received it in exchange for the sale of their produce. Secondly, the destruction of 700 bales of stuffs by a fire at the commercial meeting at Zile. By these causes and by the presence of many buyers, prices were kept up.

Here follows the table of exports and imports :—

Exports.

27,867	beeves	value in	piastres	8,362,800
31,094	sheep	„	„	2,238,768
3,547	goats and lambs	„	„	255,384
1,897	horses	„	„	1,709,100
196	mules	„	„	70,560
1,000	camels	„	„	11,440,000
4,605	quintals of πινιγοῦρι	„	„	221,040
1,735	„ butter	„	„	916,080
4,480	„ coals	„	„	161,280

6,000	kilos. of oats	value in piastres	108,000
687,758	„ corn	„ „	33,012,384
88,612	„ white wheat	„ „	2,126,904
400	„ red wheat	„ „	48,000
512,000	„ barley	„ „	21,504,204
50,162	quintals of flour	„ „	4,414,568
20,772	„ hay and straw	„ „	1,096,592
22,324	„ ῥεβίθια	„ „	650,400
65,100	„ charcoal	„ „	1,562,400
5,892	bales, stuff, &c.	„ „	5,656,520
29,000	quintals of biscuit	„ „	4,176,000
1,048	„ μπαστουρμᾶ	„ „	62,880
16,043	plates of unwrought copper	„ „	12,512,330
1,007	chests of wrought copper	„ „	725,040
8,504	quintals of rice	„ „	1,426,000
894	„ suet	„ „	375,480
24,990	bales of tobacco	„ „	11,995,200
179	„ silk	„ „	1,718,404
		Total in piastres,	119,887,714

Imports

44	chests of steel	value in piastres	21,120
5,312	quintals coffee	„ „	1,912,320
665	chests of paper	„ „	635,900
418	„ iron ware	„ „	50,163
596	bales of hides (leather?)	„ „	1,072,808
622	„ thread	„ „	1,126,800
3,623	quintals of iron	„ „	1,079,116
16,769	bales of woven stuffs, &c.	„ „	16,095,360
330	quintals of pepper	„ „	67,200
7,784	chests of soap	„ „	470,400
215	earthenware vessels, &c.	„ „	387,000
715	bales of canvas	„ „	256,400
4,595	quintals of sugar	„ „	2,203,600
		Total in piastres	25,378,184

In 1855 there entered inwards at the Port of Samsoun, 449 vessels; viz.—

	Steamers.	Sailing Vessels.	Total.
English - -	70	99	169
Turk - - -	18	132	150
Austrian - -	45	11	56
French - -	23	19	42
Sardinian - -	2	23	25
Neapolitan - -	2	3	5
Tuscan - -	2	0	2
		Total	449

iv.—"*Leader*" on "*Eastern Question*," *Jan.* 24, 1856.

Let us take a short review of the condition of affairs which prevailed previously to the announcement of the unexpected intelligence from which the world has drawn fresh hopes. This condition was a remarkable one on many accounts, and especially so with reference to the tone and position assumed by the English press.

Warlike tone of English press.

Its whole bearing was to the last degree warlike. With the angry eye of an assailant, it surveyed the whole Russian empire from one end of the earth to the other, searching out its more accessible and vulnerable points. It kept reckoning over and over again the old and new ships and armies of maritime England, and recounting all the marvellous inventions which English ingenuity was preparing for the approaching, the decisive, campaign against Russia; it pointed out to the Generals and Admirals of the allied forces where and how they were to inflict the fatal stroke on the formidable power of the north. But when any voice was heard to recommend in the interests of humanity that an end should be put to the great struggle by means of a Congress of the Powers, "The Times" said with warmth, "Rather than refer the decision of our differences to a Congress in which Russia will be all-powerful by means of the votes of her retainers and hirelings, we choose that the sword decide between us; it is, it is true, an undiscriminating, but it is ever an impartial judge. We did not draw it without knowing what sacrifices it would demand, and we will not sheathe it without surer guarantees than such as the wisdom or sincerity of a Congress of European Princes can furnish." Certainly from language such as this no one could conjecture that we were on the eve of a peace; and, besides these, there were other circumstances complicating the affair, which wore an equally threatening aspect.

"The Times."

"The Morning Post."

Prussia would not accept and support in St. Petersburgh absolutely and without condition the propositions of Count Esterhazy, and "The Morning Post," the organ of the Prime Minister of England, Lord Palmerston, not believing that Russia would accept those propositions, but supposing that she would again defer the settlement of the matter by her intrigues, held up *in terrorem* the naval and military forces of the Western Powers, and particularly threw out some threatening hints to Prussia, saying, that that power might one day learn that the road to Berlin was easier than that to Moscow, if it did not at last determine to range itself openly with one or other of the contending parties. The organ of the Prussian Prime Minister made some sort of

reply to this, saying, that Prussia remained true to the principles she had already once proclaimed, and that she had, in support of them, such a military force in readiness to take the field as no power could afford to despise; and that the whole of Germany, not excepting Austria, was agreed with Prussia as to the basis of the Eastern question, and was ready to co-operate with all its forces towards the re-establishment of peace on a just and equitable basis.

Attitude of Sweden and Denmark.

Sweden had concluded the celebrated treaty with the Western Powers, which was commonly regarded as a certain forerunner of another treaty for an offensive and defensive alliance, to be made in anticipation of the coming campaign; and, shortly after this, it was announced, that Denmark proposed following Sweden's example. The truth of this announcement was subsequently denied, both with reference to the present views and future intentions of Denmark; but there is no doubt that much exertion had been used to bring over this power to the side of the allies.

Botanical Notes.*

1. Since the general distribution of plants is as greatly affected by the character of the soil as by climate, light, heat, moisture, and other physical agents, it should be stated that the neighbourhood of Smyrna is characterized by three principal geological formations, viz.:—1, porphyritic rock; 2, limestone; 3, alluvial deposit. There are, however, not wanting examples of volcanic formations, and especially of a coarse conglomerate rock.

2. The higher ranges of hills which surround the Bay of Smyrna, and bound the fertile plains to the eastward, are all of limestone, a hard gritty limestone, containing organic remains sparingly. These hills, with their characteristic outline, form the principal feature in the landscape of the country.

3. But here and there, especially on the south side of the bay, the porphyry crops out, and takes an important part both in the geology and botany of the district. At the back of the city, to the S.S.E., and bearing part of the city on its foot, rises "Mount Pagus" to some 600 feet. This is a bold rocky height, almost isolated from the other hills, but sending out two great spurs to the west and south. The external characters as well as the vegetation of this tract of igneous rock contrast strongly with those of the limestone.

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* Communicated by Edward Atkinson, Esq., late assistant surgeon to the Hospital at Smyrna.

4. The alluvial soil of the plains would not require special notice were we speaking of the geology of the district alone; but when regarded in connexion with its vegetation, it of course acquires a right to be considered par excellence. There are several extensive plains in the vicinity; of these the two principal are those of Boudjah and Hadjilar. The former is elevated on a table of limestone hills, has but a shallow soil, which partakes much of the character of the rock, and its flora is determined accordingly. The latter is scarcely above the level of the sea, and seems to have been formed by the deposit of rivers, though there is *now* no stream traversing it of sufficient size to add materially to its present extent. It is covered with a deep and rich soil, whose produce is luxuriant in the extreme.

5. To attribute to each part of a district where the nature of the soil chanced to differ an entirely distinct flora, would undoubtedly be incorrect, but it is very true (and nowhere more strikingly than here) that those plants and shrubs which have the most decided *elective* property (if I may use the expression) almost invariably form the most prominent objects that meet the eye, and so characterize the spot at the first glance.

6. The granite or porphyry tract is much less clothed with shrubs than the limestone, and seldom produces any but a few stunted bushes of cratægus oxycantha, pyrus communis, amygdalus communis (wild almond), and other rosaceous plants.

In June and July, however, when almost all around is either fading or already destroyed by the voracious locusts, the shadier nooks of these rocks shelter the bright green of a beautiful asclepiad (schubertia multiflora), whose sweet-scented flowers are well protected by their poisonous quality. This formation, however, though lacking plants of larger growth, is in no want of floral beauty. The delightful spring, which commences about the 15th of March, and lasts till the end of May, clothes the hill sides with hundreds of brilliant flowers—among which the scarlet and blue anemones of our gardens, and some half dozen species of scilla, are the most conspicuous.

7. The flora of the limestone tract is much more varied and striking. In the lower parts of the hills, and in the valleys, there is abundance of evergreen oak (quercus ilex), and several members of the N.O. anacardiaceæ or terebinth family—*e. g.*, the pistacia terebinthus (yielding the famous Chian turpentine), the P. lentiscus, which, under favourable circumstances, yields the mastic of commerce. [The only place where it is now cultivated for this purpose is in a small part of the Isle of Scio. Numbers of similar localities

might perhaps be made available in the different islands of the Archipelago.] The Rhus cotinus also grows here to a height of eighteen or twenty feet. The barer parts of the hills have large tracts of low brushwood formed of the *ilex*, P. lentiscus, poterium spinosum, and other thorny or aromatic shrubs. Lavender, origanum, and many other dwarf woody herbs of the mint tribe are common. On the higher plains the wild olive, the myrtle, and the stone pine predominate—while the still higher uplands and ridges are clad with a perfect thicket of arbutus unedo, A. andrachne — quercus infectoria — several ericæ, &c. The course of the mountain streams is always indicated by a fringe of oleanders, as the salt marshes on the south side of the bay are invariably bordered by the feathery tamarisk. As might have been expected, the limestone district abounds in orchids and ophryds, some of which are exceedingly singular. The high plains, too, are remarkable for their *composite* plants.

8. The flora of the alluvial plains is of course far more extensive, and embraces representatives of many more natural orders than the other two together. The hedges that bound the green lanes are composed chiefly of myrtle, yellow jasmine, laburnum, and ilex, overrun with clematis and honeysuckle. Here and there occur fine bushes of the paliurus australis or Christ's thorn, or else the rose-coloured masses of the circæa judaica or Judas tree. These plains abound chiefly in leguminous and solanaceous plants. To which I may add cruciferæ and labiatæ.

The umbelliferous plants of this district are not numerous, though perhaps the frequency of some few species might mislead a superficial observer as to the number of species. The commonest of all is the Smyrnium olusatrum, which probably takes its name from the city. It overruns all the cemeteries, and seems to thrive best in the cypress shade.

The momordica elaterium, or squirting cucumber, is a weed everywhere, but especially on the rocky hill used as a burial ground by the Jews.

9. As to timber, there is scarcely any but pine grown in the country, all other is imported from the Black Sea or elsewhere. There are, however, some large plane trees to be found in the neighbourhood, but not sufficient for building purposes. There is no forest, properly so called, in the district.

Native walnut and olive wood are used for cabinet-making, and the saplings of lemon, cherry, bay, apricot, hazel, jasmine, and wild-rose, are all used for the manufacture of pipe stems —a staple article of produce. Cypresses afford the tallest

timber of any grown in the country ; but these do not appear to be ever planted out of the cemeteries, where they sometimes attain a height of 120 feet, with a girth of 8 or 10 feet or more. I have, nevertheless, seen them occasionally felled and turned to account. In some places a tall poplar is cultivated for scaffolding poles, but they do not reach a great height near Smyrna.

10. In almost all countries there are some wild plants used as common food by the lower classes. So here the people eat the malva sylvestris, sinapis arvensis, taraxacum, and cichorium, &c. &c. But their greatest delicacy is a dish of the young shoots of tamus communis (the black briony), which they eat boiled, very much after the fashion of asparagus. The young plant of papaver dubium is also eaten, uncooked, as a salad, and I have been told by several people that in the winter the Greeks of Smyrna boil and eat as a luxury the corms of the muscari glutinosum (a grape hyacinth). Besides these the Turks, but more especially the Greeks, use a variety of seeds, roots, and leaves for food ; parched maize is a common article of diet among the poor Jews. I have tried, but without success, to discover from what species of orchids the *salep* of commerce is derived. It is brought from some miles inland, and may, therefore, belong to a plant I never met with. The leaves of Smyrnium olusatrum (alexanders) are stewed and eaten commonly, and the seeds are also used in condiments. The most ordinary vegetables which the Smyrna market supplies, are all of the solanaceous family [*e. g.*, tomatoes (lycopersicum esculentum), brinjols (solanum melongena), capsicums], or of the cucurbitaceous order, as all manner of gourds, pumpkins, and melons. The potato is not much cultivated near Smyrna, but is very largely imported.

11. Medicinally there are many plants made use of, and indeed the people are, like all Orientals, most faithful herbalists ; but little comparatively can be known of their system, so long as the herb-doctors' craft is in vogue and their secrets therefore worth keeping. A few herbs, however, I learned the use of. The marrubium vulgare, for instance, (the horehound,) is in great requisition for diarrhœa, and the plantago coronopus or buckshorn plantain for hæmorrhoids ; Thalictrum vulgare (rue) for melancholia, or to avert an evil omen ; and aristolochia longa for uterine diseases and infantile convulsions. The vitex-castus was said formerly by Forskahl to be used in Smyrna for colic ; but though that aromatic shrub is exceedingly common there, I could not learn that it was a remedy in general use. This vitex is especially frequent on the plains of

Bondjah, Sedikioi, and the R. Cayster, and sometimes assumes the importance of a tree.

12. Among the many medicinal plants indigenous to this locality may be enumerated,—momordica elaterium, cotyledon umbilicus, carum carui, coriandrum sativum, sambucus nigra, anthemis nobilis, olea Europæa, erythrea centaurium, convolvulus scammonia, inula Helenium, valeriana officinalis, mentha viridis, &c.; origanum, marrubium, lavandula, &c.; ruta (thalictrum) graveolens, scilla maritima, laurus nobilis, pistacia terebinthus, and P. lentiscus; fœniculum offic., amygdalus comm., solanum dulcamara, and datura stramonium.

All the gum scammony exported from Smyrna,—its only habitat as far as we are concerned,—is collected from wild plants, which grow in thickets and hedge bottoms. There seems no sufficient reason why the cultivation of this exceedingly costly drug should not be successful elsewhere; it needs shade, support, a dryish light sandy soil, pure air, and little interference. But surely this would be worth an attempt, considering its present value. The mandragora officinalis or mandrake is said to be found near Smyrna, and is the subject there, as elsewhere, of all the old superstitions.

The sesamum orientale or sesame and the capparis spinosa or caper plant are both worthy of notice as common plants in the vicinity.

LONDON:
Printed by GEORGE E. EYRE and WILLIAM SPOTTISWOODE,
Printers to the Queen's most Excellent Majesty.
For Her Majesty's Stationery Office.